The Nation.

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The Week.

THE restoration of the reciprocity treaties is positively announced as a part of the McKinley programme. Like some other parts, this serenely disregards the fact that changed times command changed policies. It also forgets that the very corner-stone of the reciprocity treaties was free sugar. Without it the first treaties—those with Brazil and Spain (for Cuba)—would never have been written, and but for these the others would not have followed. But it is now agreed on all hands that the new tariff bill is to tax sugar. The only question is how much, and this is a matter for nice adjustment between the Sugar Trust, the Louisiana cane-growers, and the makers, or would-be makers, of beet sugar all over the country. With sugar taxed, what is there left to base reciprocity upon? Free hides, some one may say. But hides may not continue free, in the first place, and, in the second, they had no coercive power in the hands of President Harrison. He threatened to tax Argentine hides if no reciprocity treaty was forthcoming, but thought better of it; and the tax he actually laid on Venezuelan hides had no result except to restrict our supply. Free sugar is, in short, absolutely essential to reciprocity. The former we are not to have, but the latter we are certain to get. You ask how, and the only answer you get is, that this is going to be the greatest administration ever known for harmonizing fire and water and achieving impossibilities.

The tariff hearings have at least succeeded in disposing of one false pretence, and that is that the new bill must be had for the sake of revenue. Who of the men heard by the committee have thought or cared or spoken about revenue—except the revenue that is to flow into their own pockets? There has been some fatuous talk, it is true, about the larger receipts of the Government under the higher rates of duty, provided importations kept up to their present figure. But as, in the same breath, the aim is avowed of shutting out all importations, and the claim made that by a little more protection the domestic manufacturer will be able to supply the home market entirely, these allusions to revenue are transparent humbug. The fact has been made clear that the protectionists have simply found a new form of dishonesty on which to base their impudent demands. They now want special favors and law-made profits only for the sake of making good the Government deficit. If the deficient revenues were really the thing to be cured, a bill of three lines would do it. As it is, no one can guess within $20,000,000 what the new tariff will produce. Behind all rises the question, Are the national revenues really deficient? The Treasury report for December shows a surplus of $2,000,000 for the month. This looks like a dastardly attempt to discredit in advance the new prohibitory protectionist tariff for revenue only.

Senator Sherman delivers himself of some senile maunderings about taking the tariff "out of politics." It is not a political question at all, he gravely argues, but a business question. If you doubt it, just look at the men who appear at the tariff hearings. Are there any politicians among them? Are they not all business men? Yes, they are business men who have bought and paid for protection, and who go to Washington to demand it from the politicians whom they have put in power for that very purpose. Chairman Dingley feebly begs them to take half they ask and be satisfied, but the spirit of blind and greedy protectionism has evidently broken loose as never before in this country. The committee itself is clearly aghast at the impudence and extravagance of some of the haughty demands made upon it. Taking the tariff out of politics! As long as more money can be made by buying Congressmen than by buying wool or cotton and manufacturing it, as long as there is greater profit in selling votes on the tariff than in selling merchandise, protection will stay in politics. It will stay there, too, as it always has been in the past, a corrupting power, the responsible cause of Populism and Bryanism; in the end, as destructive to free government as it is to free competition.

If anything were needed to show the utter folly of supposing a tariff can be framed in a way to "stay put," it would be furnished by the hearing on the cotton schedules. The cotton schedules of the Wilson bill now in effect were publicly accepted by the manufacturers as perfectly satisfactory. Their spokesman in the Senate, Senator Aldrich, declared those schedules the most "scientific" ever drawn, and said that the New England manufacturers had nothing to complain of in that particular. Yet they were present in force at Washington on Tuesday week to claim their share of the national largess with the rest of the public mendicants. Protection which was ample and thorough two years ago is now good for nothing. So it always has been. Let the manufacturers write their own rates in a new bill, and in two years' time they would be just as angrily clamorous for better protection. Yet simple-minded old Senator Sherman is going to take the tariff out of politics!

A correspondent writes to us in a querulous tone to say that we have made a "misstatement" in saying that chlorate of potash has always been on the free list of the tariff. We have to acknowledge that this was an error. What we should have said was that chlorate of potash was put on the free list by the McKinley tariff, and that it was dutiable previously at the rate of 3 cents per pound. We assume that McKinley was a good authority on this subject. Probably he reasoned that an article which entered largely into other manufacturing industries, and was not produced in this country, ought to be on the free list on protectionist grounds. We can remember a time when the doctrine prevailed extensively that the object of protection was to build up manufactures. It has since suffered a change into something rich and strange. The prevailing notion now is a distribution of the national income by a log-rolling bill, according to the number of votes that can be mustered for this, that, and the other interest. On this basis we see very little reason to expect a duty on chlorate of potash in the forthcoming bill, although there is just as good a claim for it as for a duty on chromate of potash, or on raw wool, or on anything which is taxed for private rather than for public revenue.

The sticking-place of any new tariff bill is certain to be the Senate. This the protectionist manipulators well know, and they are already busy with plans to "fix" the Senate. One evidence of their scheming is seen in North Carolina, where they are favoring the reëlection of Senator Pritchard. He has been an out-and-out silver man, and is even now supported by some Populists on the ground that he is "as good a silver man as there is in the country." But he appears to have promised Mr. Hanna not to insist upon a free-silver rider to a tariff bill, and that, of course, is enough. Once get the tariff through and the currency may lie a-bleeding, for all the Republican managers care. They mean to "fix" some more silver Senators as they have fixed Pritchard. They will make them promises to do something for silver, which they hope afterwards to find some convenient way of lying out of, or will help them to get a re-election, or in some way coax or bribe them into voting for a tariff bill without silver. Watchful Wharton Barker has several columns of "alarums and excursions" on this very subject in his *American* of last week. He exhorts the Silver Republicans to be unyielding —"Let There Be No Surrender!" Let them give no credit to the gay deceivers

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of the protectionist cause. If they stand their ground firmly, they can defy the whole host, and make it again "free silver or no protection." All told, the new tariff bill promises to be a great success at least in developing legislative scandals and the prosperity of senatorial intriguers. But that is a venerable infant industry which always fares best at the hands of a tariff bill.

The House committee on banking and currency is going to have some "hearings" of its own, beginning on January 6. It will listen to the advocates of different bills for reforming the currency. Chairman Walker and some of the most influential members of the committee are thoroughly convinced of the need of doing something. Doubtless they are also convinced, as is the country, that nothing will be done by the present Congress. Still, their invitation to business men to come on and explain their views is to be commended. It may help to keep people mindful that there was an election turning on the currency issue only two months ago. Even a few gentlemen going to Washington to ask for a measure in the public interest, would furnish a pleasing contrast to the hordes who are besieging the ways and means committee for private favors. But the Indianapolis convention a week hence is likely to be of more importance to the question of currency reform than any hearings at Washington.

More cheer for silver came from Canton last week. Mr. McKinley had requested Senator Wolcott to undertake an "unofficial mission" to Europe. He is to "sound" European bimetallists, and see what can be done about another international conference. Major McKinley is said to be indignant at the "disquieting reports" put out in the Silver States that he would do nothing for silver. He wants it to be understood that he means to live squarely up to the platform. That precious document mentioned international bimetallism in a furtive and sheepish way, and thereafter it immediately dropped out of sight in the canvass except as a laughing-stock. But McKinley is fond of laughing-stocks of that kind, and is determined to associate himself with this one as closely as possible. Senator Wolcott explained that his trip became "prematurely public," which he "deplored." He had hoped that it would be "kept quiet." Secrecy, nocturnal meetings, cipher dispatches, are an essential part of the new international bimetallism. Nor would the Senator give the names of the eminent English bimetallists whom he goes to sound. There is no shyer bird than your eminent bimetallist, and he might refuse to stand and be sounded if public notice were drawn to him. Finally, announced the Colorado Senator, "I have, for my own part, little hope of any international agreement that will carry out our views." In other words, the whole thing is simply one more belated attempt to sprinkle international salt on the tail of the Silver Republican vote.

Sending agents abroad to sound foreign governments on the subject of bimetallism is simply to prolong the doubt as to what is the real meaning of the word dollar. It does not help the matter any to bring into doubt also the meaning of the pound sterling, the franc, and the mark. In a supposable case all four of them might be brought into discredit, but that would mean more disturbance rather than less. It would give us partners in confusion, but would not lessen our own share of it. Even if we take a more hopeful view of it, if we suppose that another international conference would succeed where three have failed miserably, much time must elapse before any result whatever can be reached. The period of gestation would carry us beyond the next congressional elections, if not to the next Presidential election. But, as has been said, the advance agent of prosperity becomes the full agent within two months' time, and he will then be held responsible for his title. What effect will his failure have on the elections two years hence?

Mr. Bryan points a finger of scorn at the successive bank failures. What is the "advance agent of prosperity" doing, he inquires, to let such things occur? We do not see that Mr. McKinley has any answer—certainly he will have none after March 4. For every broken bank, every passed dividend, every closed mill he will be, after that date, personally responsible. If Bryan had been elected, he would have been, he admits, responsible. But what a humiliating position for a free people to have got itself into! All eyes are turned to Washington, whence help must come or we perish. Once we kept our eyes on our business and said to Government, "Hands off!" Now it must be governmental hands on all the time, or we are lost. The big Chicago bank failure, which caused several others, was due to most scandalous banking methods, bad loans to sons-in-law of the President, loading up with speculative stock, and all that. Reckless loans on real estate explain a bank failure in Minneapolis. Yet we wring our hands and cry to Heaven and McKinley, and say there must be something rotten in the government if such terrible things can happen.

The Senators and Representatives who have been home during the recess of Congress have had a chance to find out how little sympathy with Jingoism there really is among the people. The Chandlers and Camerons and Morgans will have no evidence to offer that the people are with them in their proposal to go to war with Spain over Cuba. So far as the press indicates the sentiment of the public, the country stands in support of the President by an overwhelming majority. Bill Chandler had a chance during the holidays to read in the Manchester *American*, one of the most prominent Republican newspapers in his State, the declaration that, while nine-tenths of the voters of the United States believe that Grover Cleveland is "a wrong-headed, opinionated, bigoted, obstinate man, whose election to the Presidency four years ago was little less than a national calamity," yet "their opinion is or will be that his recent course in dealing with the complications growing out of the Cuban insurrection is vastly more to the credit and material well-being of the country than is that of the fire-eating Senators and members of Congress who demand the instantaneous obliteration of Spain from the map of nations." So, too, Senator Frye of Maine was notified by the Portland *Press* that, if he is in favor of interference, the great majority of Maine people are not with him. We are not aware that a single journal of character and standing in the whole country supports the policy championed by the Senate committee on foreign relations.

The Republican machine in Illinois is loath to abandon the idea of giving the United States senatorship to a "boodle Alderman" of Chicago, and the decent element in the party does not expect to make it back down without a hard struggle. The scheme was cooked up months ago. The Governor-elect, the Illinois member of the Republican national committee, the Chicago Congressman who is the most of a boss in the delegation, and the other members of the "combine," both in Chicago and elsewhere in the State, treated the office as absolutely belonging to them when they decided last summer how various places in the public service should be apportioned, and assigned it to Alderman Madden. They treat the mayoralty of Chicago, which will fall vacant next April, in the same way now. But the very impudence of this Illinois machine may prove its destruction. Even Tweed in his palmiest days would not have thought of giving the United States senatorship from New York, if its disposition had been in his hands, to a Tammany Alderman. He would at least have made a pretence to decency by picking out a respectable figurehead, like John T. Hoffman, who had not been openly connected with notorious steals. It marks the downward tendency of party machines that in both New York and Illinois the "organization" of the party which has always prided itself upon its high character, is now committed to the support for the senatorship of men who are known to levy upon corporations for money of which they make no account. The only differ-

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ence between them is that the Illinois machine is rather the more shameless of the two. But there is a great difference in the reception of the machine programme in New York and in Illinois. Here almost everybody "deprecates personalities," is opposed to telling the truth about Platt for fear of "flinging mud," and is afraid to be "anti-Platt." There, prominent Republicans are ready to declare themselves anti-Madden, to make "intensely personal" speeches, to cite date and place of Madden's dishonesty.

Some light is cast upon the modern interpretation of "legitimate expenditures" in politics by the revelations that are being made in the Pennsylvania senatorial contest. It recently came out that a fortnight before the November election the chairman of the Republican State committee, "by request of Senator Quay," enclosed sums of $250 and $500 to various candidates for the Legislature "to help defray your campaign expenses." Frank Willing Leach, who has had a political experience of fifteen years as the lieutenant of Senator Quay, says that the campaign for the chairmanship of the Republican State committee in 1895 cost a sum estimated by Quay himself at $200,000. Leach expended a considerable portion of this amount, but he certifies that all the funds disbursed by him were spent in aiding the election of delegates friendly to Mr. Quay, "and it was a perfectly proper expenditure." This last, it must be remembered, was simply a factional fight in the Republican party for control of its State convention, and yet an expert testifies that the expenditure of $200,000 by the winning side is "perfectly proper"!

The name of Seth Low is signed to the draft of the new charter which contains the bi-partisan police provision, but it is not possible that he has given it his approval. The plea which the committee who drafted the charter makes in defence of the bi-partisan principle is that it is necessary because the Bureau of Elections is included in the Police Department. This, as we have pointed out already, is the old machine dodge of refusing to make the Bureau of Elections separate, in order that this very excuse might be advanced. Mr. Low condemned both the bi-partisan principle and this excuse for it in his speech before the Mayor, on May 1, 1895, when, in opposing the Platt bi-partisan bill of that year, he said:

"The great objection to the bill is in its fundamental defects. It is not altogether what it does, but what it does not do. It has not taken the Bureau of Elections out of the hands of the Police Department, and has not separated them. This is the fundamental defect of the bill."

A month earlier, in opposing the same bill at Albany, Mr. Low said that the separation of the Bureau of Elections from the Police Department had worked well in Brooklyn and should be adopted in New York. At the hearing before the Mayor, Mr. Low read extracts from the Lexow investigation, showing the appalling corruption in the police force, in consequence of the politicians' grip on the department, and said:

"In view of these, I should like to ask whether any one believes that bi-partisanship will take partisanship out of the department. We cannot believe it. Are we to say that we have discovered the panacea for all municipal evils in bi-partisanship? Mr. Mayor, let us return to the platform of the fathers of the Republic. They put aside the idea of bi-partisanship and adopted the idea of individual responsibility. They put one man at the head of the Treasury, one man at the head of the State, and one man at the head of the Post-office Department. We have had good results from that policy. Surely, under these ideas, we should have greater results than from any bi-partisan bill."

The daily sessions of our Police Board constitute the strongest possible argument against the bi-partisan provision of the proposed Greater New York charter. It is impossible for the honest and capable members of the board to attend to the business of the department, because the presence of one tricky spoils politician among them makes it so. He compels them, by his open and secret manœuvres in the interest of the Platt machine, to spend the greater part of their time in bickering with him in the only partially successful task of exposing his schemes and cornering him in his falsehoods. He has had no other function in the board, since he entered it as the "representative of the Jimmy O'Brien Democracy," than to impede the public business, block all efforts for the thorough reform of the force, and give provocation for incessant wrangling. He is the very incarnation of the bi-partisan idea, and he works as other incarnations of it who preceded him—Johny McClave, Jimmy Martin, Mike Kerwin, Charlie Murray, and Johnny Sheehan—worked for so many years, to prevent the Police Department from becoming a thoroughly honest and efficient body. If Parker were out of the Police Board to-day, and an honest, capable man were in his place, or if Mr. Roosevelt or Mr. Andrews were sole head, there would be no further bickerings, the members of the force would realize that the last stronghold of the old demoralizing "pull" system had been carried, and the task of reform could be accomplished without bickering and without delay.

The Southern press gives more space than ever before to the advantages which their section offers to settlers. It would be hard to exaggerate the claims that may be truthfully made as to the climate, the fertility of the soil, the opportunities for developing material resources of various sorts. But there is one drawback which will make nine out of ten Northern people who think of making the change at first hesitate and finally decide against it. It is the appalling record of crime, as given in the very newspapers that appeal for settlers. Take Georgia, for example, "the Empire State of the South," as it likes to be called. Ex-Gov. Northen is diligently engaged in setting forth its advantages as a place for homes, but the Savannah *News* is forced to confess that "the criminal record for Christmas week in Georgia is very, very bad." The reports published in the *News* on Christmas and the two following days show no less than twenty homicides, many of them being cold-blooded murders, and the great majority growing out of the drinking of whiskey, while there were also numerous bloody fights. In the expressive language of the *News*, "whiskey-drinking went along with pistol-toting, and when the liquor had got in its work, pistols were whipped out and lives sacrificed," with the result that "it was a sad Christmas to hundreds of Georgians, because of whiskey and pistols."

The renewal of the charter of the Bank of France, now pending before the French Chamber, has given rise to some curious ideas about banking, comparable to those of our expertest Populist financiers. The great thing in the minds of the Deputies is to get a bank that will cheerfully discount "agricultural paper." They know that the existing Bank of France has a horrid and heartless way of asking for collateral, and they fear that the managers under the new charter will go on in the same bad fashion unless the law compels them to be more considerate of unsecured notes. Accordingly they proposed to amend the charter in such a way as to compel the Bank to discount nine months' agricultural bills with two signatures. But the committee voted this down, eleven to five, after the Minister of Finance had said the charter would not be accepted by the Bank on those terms. Still, something must be done for agricultural paper. The Premier, M. Méline, the French McKinley, and as paternal and benevolent as he, insists upon some kind of bank for the farmers. His idea is to have a Central Bank, especially for agriculture, intermediary between the Bank of France and the farmers. Excellent, said the Deputies; put that in the charter and compel the Bank of France to pay out of its profits the losses from the discount of agricultural bills. It was taken for granted on all sides that there would be losses. If the bills had to be met when due, what would be the advantage of a Government bank to discount them? But M. Méline did not quite want to put it in the charter. It might frighten the stockholders. If the Chamber would first extend the charter and get that safely out of the way, he would pledge himself to bring in a separate bill for a nice, grandmotherly sort of bank for the farmers. There the matter hung at last accounts.

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SENATORS OF NEW YORK.

THERE seems to be no doubt that the remarkable hold which Platt has upon the Republican party of this State will be shaken off when an opportune time for doing so shall arrive. The trouble is to find a really opportune time. Several disappointments have been experienced in the search for one. It was thought in December and January, a year ago, that precisely this kind of time had arrived. Cornelius Bliss, Elihu Root, John Sabine Smith, and twenty-two other Republicans of unimpeachable standing collected evidence to show that Platt had got possession of the party machinery through an enrolment which was thoroughly rotten with fraud and forgery. They proved their case, and were going ahead to repudiate Platt and put him outside what Sheehan calls the "pale of the organization." Just as they had become thoroughly indignant and irresistibly belligerent, somebody said to them: "See here, are you quite sure that this is not an inopportune time for your movement? Platt is a bad man, and this enrolment is undoubtedly rotten, but is this the time to make a row about such things?" When Elihu Root heard this he paused and allowed his mind to dwell upon the time. Cornelius Bliss and John Sabine Smith did the same.

What was the result? To their unspeakable chagrin, they found that the time *was* inopportune. Mr. Root at once stated the case to the public. The movement must be held back till after the Presidential election, for nothing could be more inopportune than party dissension on the eve of a great struggle for the salvation of the nation. As soon as that crisis was passed, Mr. Platt and his rotten organization would get their deserts. Well, the crisis passed, and when it was over, the discovery was made that, during the anxiety about the country's honor, Mr. Platt had been busying himself with collecting a Legislature which would make him a United States Senator. Mr. Choate was put forward as a man more worthy of Republican support for the place. It was very difficult to say that you preferred Choate to Platt without saying why; but the minute you began to say why, you saw that the whole movement was inopportune. How so? Because we were on the eve of a Republican national administration, and any real antagonism to Platt at this time would arouse partisan feeling, create party discord, and disturb that harmony without which the new President could not hope to grapple successfully with the great problems which confronted him. When the Republican Club was asked to favor Choate, it declined to allow the subject to be discussed, or to have any unpleasant allusions made to Platt, because to do so now was so clearly inopportune. Cornelius Bliss, John Sabine Smith, and Elihu Root would convince you within two seconds of this if you had any doubt.

But we did not need to rely on our local experts in inopportunity. A good Platt man went post-haste to Canton, and talked with Major McKinley and Mr. Hanna about it. They were both of the same mind. Major McKinley deprecated anything which should disturb the existing harmony in New York, or deprive his administration of the full benefit of it. Mr. Hanna held that, since Mr. Platt was certain to be elected, the opposition to him was clearly inopportune. Why, it might result in preventing the passage of a new tariff bill unless called off. When these opinions reached this city, all the anti-Platt Republicans who had been looking for a good excuse for postponing their movement again, threw up their hands, saying as loyal Republicans they could not do anything to endanger McKinley's administration. So Platt will be elected to the Senate with very little opposition except from confirmed Mugwumps, who are never so happy as when they are thoroughly inopportune. They fairly dote on inopportunity, and think that the best time in which to fight a political rascal is when he is engaged most openly in his deviltry.

When shall we have the blessed sight of the opportune time in which to fight Platt? There can be no hope for it this winter, for the McKinley administration will not begin till March, and its problems will remain unsolved for a long time afterwards, so that any disturbance of party harmony will be inopportune. Everything that goes on at Albany in the Platt Legislature, including the "jamming through" of a new charter for Greater New York, will have to be accepted meekly for this reason. Is there any hope for next fall? We fear not. It will be necessary then to save the city from Tammany; and a fight with Platt, on the eve of election, will be most inopportune. After that our next chance will come in the winter of 1897 and 1898, but you see we shall then be on the eve of a new State election and of a congressional election, and harmony will be as essential as ever. In fact, there seems to be no time when you can fight a corrupt boss without disturbing the harmony of the party, and there is never a disturbance of harmony which is so entirely opportune as to please all the conservative minds of the party.

There appears to be no way out of it except for Republicans who do not enjoy Platt's government to become perfectly reckless and say that, after all, common honesty is of more importance than party harmony, and that it is better to be inopportune than to acquiesce in the destruction of popular government. Signs of so violent an upheaval in party ethics as this would be are not plentiful just now, but there is no telling what the future may bring forth. In addition to the all-powerful dread of being inopportune, there is the scarcely less potent fear that too reckless devotion to mere honesty in politics may lead to classification with Mugwumps, and they are such a very lonesome and powerless lot, you know. They never get any offices, and the candidates whom they advocate are seldom elected. What could be more forlorn, for example, than the position in which Mr. Choate is to be left when the present contest closes? He will get very few votes in the Legislature, while Platt will have a great majority, and Choate will be pointed to as a warning to all ambitious men against the deadly support of Mugwumps.

GOVERNORS OF NEW YORK.

MR. MORTON closed his term of office on Friday with a well-written review of the political affairs of the State during his term of office. He went over the legislation in which he has concurred, and gave each measure its due proportion of importance. He might, however, have said more about the working of the civil-service amendment to the Constitution, because this has occupied more of the attention of political men than anything else. In fact, the government may be said to turn on this. Every measure at Albany, like the Raines bill, is considered rather with reference to its effect in creating offices or controlling modes of appointment than to any other. Gov. Morton might, therefore, without impropriety have discussed more fully the consequences it is likely to have as regards the institutions of the State. But we confess we do not see how he could do so with freedom after appointing to a high office in Brooklyn one of the oldest and most notorious friends of the spoils system and of political corruption generally. The amendment to the Constitution was really intended to make men like Worth harmless, and the Governor might very well have told us something about the extent to which this intent will, in his opinion, be carried out.

When Gov. Morton took office in 1895, there was a very general expectation that he might, in virtue of his high character and his financial soundness, become the Republican candidate for the Presidency. He failed in this, mainly owing to too great reliance on the support of the New York machine, which, as has often been illustrated, really is much less powerful and important outside the State than in it. It has not succeeded in imposing a single candidate on the convention except Van Buren, and the machine in 1836 was a very different thing from what it is now. Its composition was better and its aims were higher. Almost ever since, New York delegations have arrived in the conventions discredited by faction fights and charges of corruption. Cleveland revealed to the world in 1892 the real weakness of our State machinery on both sides, by getting the nomination in spite of the

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hostility of the delegation of his own State. There was warning in this as to the temper of the public mind, which was more than confirmed by the nomination of both McKinley and Bryan. They were both the product of something deeper and more important than machinery. We had hopes in the beginning that Mr. Morton would take this to heart and "go to the country," to use the ancient Saxon phrase, on his own merits, over Platt's head, as the champion of sound currency, of a reformed civil service, and of purity and efficiency in office—no "armor but his honest thought, and simple truth his highest skill." Our opinion was that, had he chosen to put himself at the head of the reform movement which was so powerful in 1894, and availed himself of the conspicuity which New York always gives to its high officials, as a Governor who stood for the country more than for party, not only would he have given a completely new turn to the politics of this State, both in city and country, but he would have imposed himself on the convention without Platt, in spite of Platt, as the man to win under. But he chose the other part. He appointed Aldridge when he came in, and has appointed Worth as he goes out, and has generally taken instructions (in spite of some good acts of rebellion) from the boss throughout his administration; and the recording angel drops a tear on the story as he writes it down.

Of Mr. Black, the incoming Governor, we say but little, for we know next to nothing. His nomination and Bryan's, both being completely unknown men, are conspicuous instances of the breakdown of our nominating system. Of neither of them did the general public know anything until one great party chose one of them for the Presidency because he invented a taking metaphor, and another great party chose the other for a governorship because he had successfully prosecuted a murderer. The result is curiously paradoxical, a sort of realization of the fable, for two mountains have brought forth two mice. All that has been said about Mr. Black hitherto is mere rumor. We shall this time next year be able to tell what kind of Governor he is. He has begun in the worst possible manner by reappointing to an office Jake Worth, probably one of the chief political rascals in the State. Maybe he will appoint more of the same; maybe he will not—all is a mystery. His expression in his inaugural address that "no intolerant clamor or irresponsible assault will force or prevent a single executive act," was generally held by the politicians to mean that he would certainly appoint Lou Payn. Possibly it did; but it may have been only a bit of rhetoric, intended to give notice that he will be firm as a rock. It can hardly have been intended as plain prose, because of course no man yields confessedly to "intolerant clamor or irresponsible assault." Mr. Black's English has probably been neglected. It may be, too, that, like the Philadelphia machine, which nominated two men just out of the penitentiary as police magistrates and elected them as "a dose for the high-toners," he is merely giving notice to the wretched public that their palaver about honesty and efficiency in office will not disturb him.

THE TREATMENT OF ENVY.

The crisis through which this country has lately passed has afforded great opportunities to moralists of various schools. They have generally agreed as to the gravity of the case and the alarming character of the symptoms, however divergent their opinions have been concerning the nature of the malady and the appropriate remedies. It is quite natural that the clergy should take a prominent part in these diagnoses and prognostications. The near prospect of a social cataclysm mightily arouses prophetic ardor by making it once more possible to disturb the complacent and alarm the supine. Hopeful suggestions are well enough in a way; but really to move men to action there is nothing like arousing their fears.

In prophecy of this kind, however, the clergy possess no natural monopoly. There is nothing in the education of a clergyman, nothing in the "atmosphere" which surrounds him, to give him any exceptional power of foreseeing the stages of social development. No one questions that the animus of the unsuccessful party at the recent election was to a great extent envy. The conditions were such as to unite the envious; but it is a mistake to suppose, as some clergymen appear to do, that men's hearts have not been heretofore equally prone to evil passions. "That feeling of hostility which is the only abasement of the poor in the presence of the rich"—to repeat what Hawthorne said fifty years ago—has been recognized by all observers, from Aristotle to De Tocqueville, as peculiarly manifest in a democracy. Those clerical observers who are now proclaiming that they know the hearts of the poor, and that they find them filled with hatred of the rich, doubtless report their observations correctly, but they have discovered only a well-known phenomenon. The managers of our sensational press think it pays to snap and snarl at the rich, and are, of course, utterly unbridled in the licentiousness of their speech; but if they were altogether silenced, envy would not be suppressed, and perhaps it is less venomous for not being bottled up.

For dealing with the envious there is what may be called the rational method, whereof we saw many admirable illustrations during the recent campaign. Poor people may be convinced that their interests are bound up in the general prosperity; that the property of the rich cannot be confiscated without such a disturbance of industry as will throw vast numbers of workmen out of employment. Accumulated wealth is, after all, the source of wages, and, if the springs are dried up, the streams will cease to flow. We cannot throw down the superstructure of property without undermining the foundations; and however detestable the possessors of great fortunes may be, the gratification of our hatred may seem too costly if it involves our own ruin. The part of Samson is a great part. "The People" may exult in the thought that their hands are on the pillars that uphold the social structure, and that if they bow themselves they can bring down the whole temple. But envy is a selfish and calculating passion, and however agreeable the destruction of those whom we envy may seem, the prospect of being hoist with our own petard is so unpleasant as to cause most of us to shrink from the indiscriminate use of dynamite.

What we have called the rational method, however, is only to a limited extent available to the clergy. It may fall within their province, as instructors in general, to show their people that certain acts are contrary to their interests; but no religious sanction attends such calm and utilitarian counsels as these. A man may be a better citizen for reasoning that as repudiation of debts would cause hard times wherein he would suffer, therefore he will have none of it. He may be in some ways a better man for going through this process of reasoning; but he has attained no such pitch of perfection as to make him a good Christian. He may abstain from overt acts of malignity, but his heart may be just as full of envy as ever, and he may be only nursing hatred until the time comes when he can injure others without injuring himself.

It is a painful observation, but we cannot help saying that some of the clergy have adopted what may fairly be termed the irrational method of dealing with envy. They seem to think that the people who are envied are to blame for arousing the evil passions of their neighbors, and that the envious are quite justified in their indulgence in hatred. The only advice they have to offer is that the envious must be propitiated; advice which they offer in a way that irresistibly suggests Lear's verse—

> There was an Old Man who said: "How
> Shall I flee from this horrible Cow?
> I will sit on this stile and continue to smile,
> Which may soften the heart of that Cow."

No doubt if the envied would turn over to the envious all those possessions which are coveted, the problem might be temporarily solved. But if any one imagines that condescension and beneficence are going to disarm hostility, he understands neither the present situation nor human nature. The poor whose envy is dangerous will take such condescension and beneficence at their true value, as the evidences of terror, the promptings of cowardice, the proofs that the rich have no just claim to their fortunes. As was

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shown in the last campaign, they will take their employers' money and wear the McKinley buttons; but they will vote for Bryan just the same. What they want is to pull their betters down and get up themselves, and while they will snatch whatever the fears of the wealthy prompt them to disgorge, it will only whet and not satiate their appetites. Even if we concede that the envious may be propitiated by humbling ourselves before them, we do not understand how clergymen can consider that there is any merit in sacrifices extorted under such conditions and made from such motives.

For our own part, we are satisfied that the old way of regarding envy was the true one. It is, and always will be, a mean and odious passion, deserving nothing but condemnation and only thriving on sympathy. As the irascible man needs to keep a constant guard on his temper, as the lustful man must incessantly repress his appetites, so he that is tempted to envy should fight against it with all his strength. The passion is an evil one; twice cursed, injuring him that is envied and him that envies. It is no more to be tolerated in the poor than in the rich; whatever their grievances they are not to be cured in that way. Once let a poor man give himself up to envy, and his lot becomes hopeless. Every one's hand is instinctively raised against him, and he repels the kindly aid that is sure to be offered to all those who show a kindly disposition. No genuine social reform can come from pandering to envy; its malignant spirit will corrupt every measure devised for the purpose of appeasing it. The abuses of our government are due to the bad character of the rulers chosen by the people; if they complain of these abuses, let them insist on having men of stern integrity to make their laws. Doubtless those clergymen who are encouraging the poor in their envy have good motives. They hope that in some way good may come out of evil; that a better condition of affairs will result from placating the envious. But they would be wiser if they saw that true reforms can come only from reformed men; that if men will first seek righteousness, a better social system shall be added unto them.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT BALTIMORE.

BALTIMORE, January 1, 1897.

The ninth annual meeting of the American Economic Association was held at the Johns Hopkins University in this city on December 28 31. In many respects the meeting was one of the most interesting and noteworthy in the history of the Association. Attendance was large and distinguished. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Cornell, the University of Pennsylvania, University of Michigan, University of Wisconsin, University of Minnesota, University of Illinois, University of Nebraska, Princeton, Brown, Amherst, Vanderbilt, Syracuse, Haverford, Smith, Hamilton, Bryn Mawr, Wellesley, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the College of the City of New York were among the institutions represented. The academic contingent naturally predominated; but interest and piquancy were added by the presence and frequent participation in discussion of such well-known non-professorial economists as Mr. Horace White, Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, Mr. Sheppard Homans, of New York; Mr. Thomas G. Shearman of Brooklyn; Mr. Stuart Wood of Philadelphia; Mr. Lester F. Ward, Mr. W. F. Willoughby, Mr. G. K. Holmes of Washington.

The programme of the meeting was an essential departure from the ordinary practice of the Association, and in line with the tentative procedure of last year's meeting at Indianapolis. Of the six regular sessions held, but two were devoted to the presentation and criticism of formal papers. The introductory session was given to the president's address, and each of the remaining three to the discussion of a particular economic question of current interest, led by designated persons and thereafter open to general argument. The formulated theses of the first speaker appeared on the programme and shaped the course of subsequent discussion.

The association was pleasantly welcomed at the opening session on Monday evening (December 28), by President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University. The annual address of the President of the Association, Prof. Henry C. Adams of the University of Michigan, was an acute and suggestive paper on "The Relation of Economics to Jurisprudence." Its fundamental proposition was that much of the confusion in economic theory and of the discord in industrial life is due to inadequate expression by formal law of fundamental industrial rights. This maladjustment has been caused by the extraordinary industrial development of the past one hundred years. The individualism of the eighteenth century fails to express the moral necessities of the present industrial order. Further, the principle of responsibility, which is the cornerstone of English jurisprudence, is incapable of industrial application under existing industrial conditions. The remarkable contributions of President Adams's address were involved in the consideration of the essentials of industrial liberty, and of the proposition that there is no industrial liberty without industrial property. He assented to the latter assertion, but of the nature and quality of this property right the economist could not as yet, he thought, speak with precision. In all likelihood, it will rest upon a more perfect analysis of the productive process than the one which leads to the assertion that a man's possessions are the measure of what he or his ancestors added to the world's stock of wealth. It will recognize distinctly and formally the fact of social and associated production. Its clarification will take place through the evolution of collective bargaining and the formal labor contract. Finally, a characteristic of this evolution will be that increased stress will be laid upon the theory of industrial agency.

The discussion on Tuesday morning of the question, "Is there a Distinct Agricultural Question?" from which much had been expected, was perhaps the one disappointing feature of the meeting. This was due in large part to the enforced absence of all the proposed leaders of the discussion, namely, Prof. Bailey of Cornell University, Hon. George T. Powell, Director of Agricultural Institutes of Pennsylvania, and Hon. L. G. Powers of the Minnesota Bureau of Labor Statistics. It had also been hoped that Mr. Morton, Secretary of Agriculture, or Assistant Secretary Dabney might be present, but neither was able to attend.

The theses formulated by Prof. Bailey were to the effect that the transition from small to large holdings, the common system of unvaried cropping, the efflux of young people from the farms, are characteristics of a period of general industrial change, and that it is reasonable to anticipate, through the continued activities of new social, educational, and industrial forces, a radical improvement in the status of the agriculturist in the not remote future. The tenor of subsequent discussion was less optimistic. Substantial agreement was expressed that the extent of territory in the United States, and the corresponding variety of conditions, render impossible any broad generalization as to the actual status of the farmer. Yet the existence was freely admitted of acute agricultural distress in many sections of the country, remediable only by the slow process of economic readjustment. This was well set forth by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia University, who emphasized the fact that this country is no longer the granary of the world. Depression of agricultural interests, he thought, must continue until our population has again caught up with subsistence, and we have possibly become, like England, a wheat-importing instead of a wheat-exporting nation.

The most important discussions of the meeting occurred on Wednesday. The topic of the morning session was: "What is the Present Direction of Acquisitive Investments, and what are the Economic Effects of such Investments?" Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, ex-Secretary of the Treasury, led the discussion, and called attention to the advantages and disadvantages of the savings bank as a place of such investments, and to the changes in savings-banks deposits since 1860. The system obviously makes saving easy, and accumulates capital for the benefit of the community. The word "deposits," and not "investments," in savings banks, however, indicates a serious evil of the system. In times of financial disturbance there is wont to be an unwarranted and premature withdrawal from the savings banks of deposited funds. Securities come on the market when it is not ready to take them, and thus funds, meritoriously accumulated and of considerable benefit to the community, become at such times a menace to all business interests. Mr. Fairchild raised the question whether it might not be better for deposits to be invested directly instead of through the savings banks, and discussed building and loan associations, life insurance, real-estate mortgages, stocks and securities of business enterprises as forms of such investments.

The discussion which followed dwelt on the need in this country of institutions in which persons of moderate means, depositing periodically certain sums, could find a safe investment, and yet could not withdraw at will. Productive enterprises organized in corporate form might reasonably be expected to satisfy this need; but the results of corporate mismanagement have been so disastrous to the small investor as to cause widespread hostility to such forms of investment, and to render savings banks almost the only "havens for frightened investors and shipwrecked entrepreneurs."

The afternoon discussion, on "The Duty of the Government toward the Investor," formed a natural sequel to the morning topic. Professor Arthur T. Hadley of Yale Univer-

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sity led the discussion, and advanced the general proposition that the application to modern corporate business of legal traditions established in days of smaller industrial operations results in practices which, while not technically fraudulent, have an effect on the investor analogous to that of commercial frauds. Some of these practices can be prevented by statutes providing for publicity of accounts. Others can be prevented by the prohibition of directors' contracts. Neither of these interferences in behalf of the investor, Professor Hadley contended, would be likely to do any harm at all proportionate to the good to be expected from it. Still other evils can be prevented by imposing on the promoters of new enterprises a special liability, civil and criminal, for the correctness of their representations; and in this case also the balance of good over evil which might be expected from a change, though less clear than in the two former instances, seems sufficient to warrant a movement in its favor.

Doubt was expressed in the ensuing discussion as to the wisdom of governmental inspection, in that it served as a false guarantee to the investor, and in general undertook to do what could not possibly be accomplished. As to the expediency of greater clearness and publicity of accounts, legal procedure against fictitious capitalization, and liability of officers for the correctness of reports, there was a general agreement.

Currency and banking, which easily constituted the subjects of prime interest at last year's meeting, engaged very much less attention at the present gathering. Prof. W. A. Scott of the University of Wisconsin subjected "The Quantity Theory of Money" to a careful and thoroughgoing analysis. Prof. David Kinley of the University of Illinois described the results of his continued investigations into "The Use of Credit Instruments in Business," the details of which are embodied in the forthcoming report of the Comptroller of the Currency. From returns made by 5,530 banking establishments in the United States on July 1, 1896, it appears that 68 per cent. of retail and 95 per cent. of wholesale deposits are made in credit instruments. Allowance for various factors would reduce the percentage in retail trade to between 55 and 60, and leave that of wholesale trade unchanged. The results of this investigation were criticised in respect to retail trade, on the grounds that by no means adequate allowance had been made for (1) the smaller use of credit instruments in sections of the country where no banks exist; (2) the considerable proportion of trade receipts in currency, used for current expenditures and not appearing in the volume of bank deposits.

The remaining formal papers were presented at the sessions of Tuesday afternoon and Thursday morning. Prof. Roland P. Falkner of the University of Pennsylvania criticised the statistics of crime returned by the eleventh census, and urged that instead of enumerating the prison population, we should enumerate all the prisoners received in the United States in the census year. As chairman of the Committee on the Organization of the Census, appointed at the last annual meeting, Prof. Falkner also reported that the committee, acting jointly with a committee of the American Statistical Association, had addressed a memorial to Congress urging the establishment of a permanent census office. Prof. J. R. Commons of Syracuse University discussed the advantages of day labor over contract systems in municipal works. Mr. H. T. Newcomb of the United States Department of Agriculture reviewed the results of the Interstate Commerce act in the past decade, and Prof. Carl C. Plehn of the University of California described the operation of the general property tax in California.

A pleasant feature of the meeting was the social appointments which engaged the Association in the intervals between scientific sessions. An informal "smoker" in the rooms of the Department of History, Economics, and Politics on Monday night; luncheon in McCoy Hall on Tuesday and Wednesday; a reception by Mr. Theodore Marburg, chairman of the local committee, on Tuesday night; and a formal dinner by the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association on Wednesday night held the visiting members well together, and thus prevented what experience has shown to be a disadvantage of holding a scientific meeting in a large city.

The reports of officers and chairmen of committees showed the affairs of the Association to be in a very satisfactory condition. Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell University, who has filled the office of Secretary of the Association with marked acceptance for a term of years, was unable, through pressure of other duties, to accept reëlection, and was succeeded by Prof. W. F. Willcox of Cornell. The remaining officers of the Association were reelected without change. The selection of the place of the next annual meeting was referred as usual to the Executive Committee. In view of the fact that the American Historical Association and the Political Science Association of the Central States will meet in Cleveland in 1897, it is likely that the American Economic Association will select the same city. H.

CARTHAGE.

CARTHAGE, November 15, 1896.

OF all the famous sites of antiquity, there is, perhaps, none which displays to the curious traveller so few visible traces of its former wealth and greatness as does Carthage. Few, too, are there which have, in proportion to that wealth and greatness, yielded to recent exploration so little in the way of works of art or of inscriptions. The reasons of this are not far to seek. The city was twice utterly destroyed and laid waste in a systematic way; and such buildings, even the foundations of buildings, as escaped destruction have been ransacked to furnish columns, pieces of marble, and even stones for the erection not only of mosques, palaces, forts, but also of the houses of the peasantry. When Carthage ceased to be a city, she became a quarry, and, in the process of quarrying, even those things which were of little use for building elsewhere were broken or removed. What has survived is of great interest, and more may still be recovered, but the quantity will probably remain small when compared with what many a place in Italy or France of far less note has yielded.

Although, however, there is not at Carthage a single column standing erect to bear witness to a temple or a church—not even a wall rising four feet above the surface—the site is one of surpassing interest. It does not, indeed, present, what nearly all the other ancient seats of Phœnician or Greek settlement do, either a sheltered natural haven or a strong natural fortress. This is the traveller's first surprise. There is no land-locked harbor, like that of Piræus, or Byzantium, or Barcelona, or Tarentum, or like the Old Port at Marseilles. There is no craggy height, fitted for defence, like the Acropolis of Athens or of Taormina. The ports, of which the remains can still be seen, appear to have been artificial; and the hill of the citadel is neither very high nor very steep. Yet the situation has some remarkable features.

At the extremity of a peninsula stretching eight or ten miles into the Mediterranean, and connected with the mainland by a flat isthmus, across which the sea must once have flowed, there is a ridge of hills, forming a sort of semicircle some four miles long, with its convex turned toward the sea, and rising at its highest point to about 400 feet. The sea under the hills is deep, and sheltered from the northwest, the quarter whence most high winds come, while toward the land the neck of the peninsula, even now only some three miles wide, and two thousand five hundred years ago probably much narrower, makes the defence of a settlement upon the hills comparatively easy. It was at the southern extremity of this line of hills that the Tyrian founders of Carthage planted their settlement, and the last eminence or hummock toward the south became their citadel or Bozrah (for "Bozrah" seems to be the true Phœnician form of the word which the Greek and Roman authors have written Byrsa). This hummock rises about 200 feet above the sea, from which its base is a quarter of a mile distant. It is steep towards the sea on the east and the south, while sloping more gently towards the west. On it and around its base the city arose. The ports were excavated beneath it to the southeast, and were easily made large enough (the ground being partly alluvial and the rock soft) to contain a large fleet and many merchant vessels. Thus the position was both convenient and strong. The citadel defended the ports, and while the citadel was surrounded by a wall of its own, the city, stretching along the line of eminences to the north, had also an enclosing wall of its own, and thus gave a double protection to the citadel on the sides (north and west) where the acclivities were gentle.

So much is clear. The ports are still visible, though so decidedly smaller than the descriptions of ancient writers imply that some antiquaries suppose there existed another port, enclosed by moles projecting into the sea, which has since vanished. The remains of the amphitheatre have been unearthed in the lower ground at the western base of the hill. And as to the Bozrah itself, on whose summit stood in Punic times the temple of the great god Eshmun, and where probably stood also the residence of the Roman proconsul, afterward the palace of the Vandal kings, there is no question. But almost everything else is uncertain. Various spots have been suggested as the sites of the temples and churches and other public edifices mentioned by the ancient writers, but no data have yet been discovered sufficient to fix them. Even the direction of the walls and the extent of ground covered by the city are matters of controversy, so far as the evidence of the diggings goes. The ground area included in the compass of the city proper would appear to have been small (hardly more than a square mile) compared with its population, which is said to have at one time reached 700,000 or even a million. But probably there were large suburbs; and as the bulk of the population consisted of slaves, many might well be crowded into a small space.

Like the excavations at Hissarlik (which is

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now generally admitted to be the site of Troy), the diggings at Carthage have disclosed four different periods of culture, represented by four sets of objects of art. Lowest of all are the sepulchres of the early Punic times, with a few rude pieces of pottery placed in them. Some of them recall the objects found at Mycenæ; and the shape of the tombs, rectangular holes cut in the soft rock, with two large stones set up at an angle over the top, has a Mycenæan touch, though nothing we now see at Carthage can be quite as old as the remains discovered at Mycenæ. Next above come the buildings and tombs and fragments of work of more recent Punic times, ending with the traces of burning which no doubt belong to the conflagration that ended the great siege of B.C. 146, when Scipio Africanus the Younger took and destroyed the city. Next come the Roman remains of the pagan period, and last of all those which date from Christian times, between the beginning of the fourth and the end of the seventh century. The tombs we now see belong chiefly to the two first periods, and they are so numerous and cover so much ground, not only under the débris of the city proper, but in the adjoining country to the north and northwest, as to make Carthage seem in a double sense a city of the dead. There are inscriptions, Punic and Latin, from all periods, but neither so numerous nor so valuable as might have been expected. Those of Punic times are all, or nearly all, either sepulchral or *ex-voto;* and are couched so nearly in the same words—a short prayer to the Lady Tanit or to Baal Ammon—that they do not greatly enlarge our knowledge of the Phœnician language. The fragments of pot tery and of statuary which belong to the Punic period, most of which are displayed in the little museum that the French Fathers have established on the spot, give a low impression of Carthaginian art and taste. They are monotonous in conception and rude in execution. Though the Carthaginians despoiled the Greek cities of Sicily of the beautiful works of art which adorned these cities, the possession of admirable models had apparently done little to improve their own artistic sense or to make more finished the execution of their workmen. Their art as well as their history stamps them as a hard, practical people, with little grace or refinement. They had horrible deities, vehement passions, a character and habits prone to cruelty and oppression. But they were a great race, bold, forcible, tenacious. When one thinks of the dominion which this one city, with perhaps only some thirty thousand men of Punic blood, won for herself and maintained for centuries over the shores and islands of the middle and western Mediterranean, one feels that on the political side they were no unworthy foes and rivals of the Greeks and of Rome herself.

The work of digging and exploring still goes on, but though it will probably clear up many topographical problems that are still obscure, there is little reason to think it will bring to light works of great artistic or historical value. The ground is covered for miles around the Bozrah with mounds and heaps of rubbish, and strewn with small fragments of pottery and Roman mortar. These shapeless and mutilated evidences of departed greatness are in their way quite as impressive as the shattered temples in the less utterly obliterated cities of Sicily. Their effect on the traveller's mind is hardly lessened by the erections with which the tasteless zeal of French ecclesiastics has recently defaced the summit of the citadel hill. Under Louis Philippe, the French Government placed upon the Bozrah a chapel to mark the spot where St. Louis is supposed to have expired, in his unfortunate crusade of A. D. 1270. It is a choice example of "carpenter's Gothic." More recently the late Cardinal Lavigerie, who rejoiced exceedingly in his title of Archbishop of Carthage and Primate of Africa, built a large cathedral on the same hilltop, a cathedral which is now the most conspicuous object in every view of the city site from a distance. It is a heavy structure, in which an unsuccessful effort has been made to combine Moorish features with twelfth-century Romanesque. I have never seen a more deplorable monument of misdirected energy, for Lavigerie was an able and restlessly active mind, giving to his plan for the recreation of Carthage as a great commercial and ecclesiastical centre what time he could spare from his projects for the expulsion of the English from Uganda and the extension of French influence over the whole of North Africa. Fortunately the French Government refused to sacrifice an existing Tunis for a possible future Carthage. The ports are not likely to be now reëxcavated and furnished with quays, for a canal has been dug through the shallow lagoon of Tunis from Goletta, long its seaport, to Tunis itself. The site of Carthage is likely to be left to those churches and convents which now crown it, and which, ill-placed as they are, do not really obscure its natural features or seriously impair the sense of desolation and solitude which it stamps upon the traveller's mind.

I have left to the last the most striking feature of this famous spot—its extraordinary natural beauty. As the position is strong for defence, with the sea environing it, as it is admirable for maritime empire, lying in the middle of the Mediterranean, with Sicily and Sardinia close at hand, half-way from the motherland of Tyre to the outermost Phœnician settlements on the edge of the ocean, so it rivals in the nobility of its landscape Constantinople or Corinth or Gibraltar. The hill of Bozrah is not lofty, but it rises so steeply from the sea, and commands so unbroken a prospect in every direction, except northeast (where it is overtopped by Sidi Bon Said, another eminence of the same chain of hills two miles away), that the view seems boundless over both land and sea. To the east there is the vast expanse of the Mediterranean, broken twenty-five miles off by the rocky isle of Zembra. To the southeast a long line of hills rises over the ample bosom of the Gulf of Tunis, running far out to the Fair Promontory, as the ancients called it, now Cape Bon. To the northwest, beyond the flat lands which the sea once covered, rise the gentler ridges where stand the lovely ruins of Utica, the elder sister of Carthage, the spot where Cato's death left Julius Cæsar master of all the Roman world except Spain. To the south and southwest three magnificent mountain groups successively arrest the eye and carry it far into the interior of Africa. Nearest, with its foot washed by the sea, is the double-peaked summit of Bon Kornein, the mountain of the two-horned Baal (Saturnus Baalcaranensis, as the Romans called him), where the ruins of his temple have been recently discovered. Further to the south is Jebel Resas, the Lead Mountain, among whose gorges the mercenary troops that revolted from Carthage and brought her almost to destruction after the First Punic War, were hemmed in and destroyed by famine and the sword. Furthest of all, and highest, is the magnificent pinnacle of Zaghwan, "Mons Zeugitanus," whence the Zeugitanian province took its name. In this peak rise the copious springs which, led by an aqueduct more than eighty miles in length, supplied Carthage with the purest water, and from its craggy top the view extends far away to the south, over plains once rich, but now mostly waste and desolate, almost to the verge of the Sahara. Immediately beneath the hill of Carthage is the narrow strip of land that divides the lagoon of Tunis from the sea, with Goletta, long a stronghold of the Moorish pirates, stormed by the Emperor Charles V., and again (after his troops had been withdrawn) the arsenal and fortress of the Beys, rising upon it at the point where a narrow channel gives access to the lagoon. And at the head of the lagoon, its smooth surface ruffled only by the flocks of pink-winged flamingoes that disport themselves in the sunshine, rise the minarets and cupolas of Tunis, glittering white across the blue waters, with line after line of hills seen behind it, growing dimmer and more delicate in their soft blue-gray tints till they sink beneath the western horizon on the borders of Numidia. As there are few more exquisite views in the world, so there are few which embrace a region more full of stirring and terrible events. For sixteen hundred years, down to the destruction of Carthage by the Arabs in A.D. 697, a fierce and strenuous life ebbed and flowed incessantly round this hill and on the plain that lies between it and Tunis. For twelve hundred years the hill has stood silent and melancholy as it stands now, and, in the words of Tasso,

> "Low lies proud Carthage; and the silent shore
> Keeps of her lordly ruins scarce a trace."

C. E.

Correspondence.

CERTIFICATES TO THE UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent in last week's issue of the *Nation* on "How to Build up a University" might well have made the application of his excellent remarks much broader. California is only one portion of a large territory where the higher education is based upon some form of the certificate system of admission to the university. I think that I am correct in stating that not one university or college west of the State of New York admits students solely upon the test of examinations given by the university authorities and marked by them. The new University of Chicago opened its doors five years ago on a strict examination system such as Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and all the strong colleges of the East have maintained, but within the past year it has seen fit to modify its position to the extent of passing upon the papers prepared by teachers of "coöperating schools." Further changes in the direction of permitting teachers and principals of affiliated and coöperating schools to enter their pupils at the University without examination by the University may be expected.

Your correspondent aptly points out that no European university or college in the Eastern States would consider for one moment accepting candidates that had not passed the university matriculating examinations with credit. But in the United States, territorially at least, the certificate plan in some form is dominant. The university education of the Mississippi Valley and the West is based upon the uncertain foundation of the preparatory school,

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which may send to the higher institution, without any direct check, whatever material it chooses. The argument used in support of this brand-new educational policy is that "the conditions of the West require very different methods in education from those of Europe or the East." Practically speaking, however, the certificate system is a device for securing numbers, and each university is forced to adopt it from competition with its easy-going rivals. Schools will not send students to be examined by the university: such a requirement on the part of the higher institution is considered insulting to the dignity of the school-teacher.

The educators of the West may have discovered a new principle in education, to be adopted by the sister institutions of the East and Europe, but, in the meantime, they should explain why the universities of the West are from one to three years behind Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania, and others in their requirements for the bachelor's degree.

Faithfully yours,

UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTOR.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

"UNCONSTITUTIONAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In addition to the numerous instances of the early use of the term "unconstitutional" cited by Mr. Albert Matthews in your issue of December 24, 1896, it may be mentioned that "Novanglus" and "Massachusettensis" made frequent use of this term in their well-known debates in 1775. In his letter of January 9, 1775, "Massachusettensis" says: "I suspect that many of our politicians are wrong in their first principle, in denying that the constitutional authority of Parliament extends to the colonies." In his letter of February 20, 1775, "Novanglus" (John Adams) asks: "Does not this show how deeply rooted in all men's minds was the abhorrence of that unconstitutional power which was usurping over them?" And in his issue of January 30, 1775, "Novanglus" quotes from Gov. Bernard's statement of propositions applicable to the colonial situation, of July 11, 1764, as follows: "76. The grants of the powers of government to the American colonies by charters cannot be understood to be intended for other than their infant or growing states. 77. They cannot be intended for their mature state, that is, for perpetuity, because they are in many things unconstitutional and contrary to the very nature of a British Government."

JAMES OSCAR PIERCE.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., December 28, 1896.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO. have nearly ready 'Two Health-Seekers in Southern California,' by Beatrice Harraden and Dr. Wm. A. Edwards.

Julius Hoffmann, Stuttgart (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), announces 'Deutsche Wappenrolle,' containing all the escutcheons, standards, flags, etc., of the German Empire, its federal States and ruling dynasties, with 131 illustrations in the text and 172 escutcheons and flags in 22 colored folio plates.

In a brilliantly covered volume published by Macmillan, Mrs. Anna Bowman Dodd tells the story of a trip 'On the [Norfolk] Broads' in a wherry. The curious network of tidal rivers and lakes between Yarmouth and Norwich constitutes one of England's playgrounds, and has often been described before, but never with a keener appreciation of its natural beauties; nor has any previous writer on the subject enjoyed the advantage of Mr. Joseph Pennell's illustrations to glorify the text. As a lover of nature Mrs. Dodd is one of the old school. She rejoices in the browsing cattle, not only because they are picturesque, but because they are "yellow, or white, or dun, according as Nature painted them, and not violet, or pink, or dark purple," as the impressionists would have us believe. When she leaves scenery and describes her fellow-travellers, she is less successful. The leading character is a gentleman named Renard, for whom she frequently claims the possession of that rare thing called Genius. Unfortunately, she gives us specimens of his "monologues" on a liberal scale, and they signally fail to substantiate so interesting a claim. Then, again, Mrs. Dodd's pages show too many signs of carelessness. We note "Galicia" for Gallia, and such phrases as "He plunged into it *medias res*"; "the plumage of some swans were dazzling," and so forth. But in spite of these blemishes the book is a pleasant one, and every married woman who reads it will be struck by the profound wisdom of the remark that "where plans and projects are under discussion," married men seem to have a peculiar and irresistible tendency to oppose everything!

Readers of the *Nation* require no introduction to Dr. P. H. Emerson, whose delightful books on the Fen country have given him an almost exclusive right to this territory, so far as description and illustration are concerned. 'Marsh Leaves' (London: David Nutt), the latest of Dr. Emerson's volumes, is entirely worthy of its author. The little prose sketches of scenery and character are, of course, of varying excellence, but the best of them are extremely pretty, and they all show a keen sense for quietly picturesque detail. For the exquisite "photo-etchings" no praise can be too high.

Mr. C. H. Herford's "Warwick Library" (London: Blackie; New York: Scribners), which already includes such attractive volumes as Mr. Vaughan's selections from English essays in literary criticism and Mr. Chambers's 'English Pastorals,' has a new number, 'English Essays,' prepared by Mr. J. H. Lobban. There are, according to the plan of the series, no notes to speak of, but there is a long introduction, in which an attempt is made to trace the history of English essay-writing from its beginnings to the present time. As was to be expected, Mr. Lobban is not strong in the "origins," but he appears to better advantage when he has once comfortably reached Defoe; and the whole paper is worth while, making no great pretensions, and performing more than it at first seems to promise. The essays which form the bulk of the volume are in the main well selected, but only ten pages are given to Defoe's.

Harper & Bros. publish in book form Moscheles's 'In Bohemia with Du Maurier,' the volume containing somewhat more matter and a greater number of illustrations than the article with the same title published in the *Century*. From their *Magazine* the same publishers have collected the series of drawings republished under the title of 'English Society.' Both books serve to remind us of a talent that, whatever its limitations and mannerisms, had a savor of its own. How good Du Maurier was as a draughtsman we are even more clearly made aware by looking at the pages of *Punch* since his death. How good he was as a writer, is the theme of Mr. Howells's introduction to the second of these volumes, and he performs his task gracefully, though he has to explain the triumph of that "confidential attitude" which he had once found fault with in Thackeray, and had predicted that the world would not now endure.

Henry & Co., London, send us 'The Pageant' for 1897, an annual the make-up of which reminds one of 'The Yellow Book' and 'The Savoy,' but the contributors to which, both literary and artistic, are of a much higher order of talent. Austin Dobson, Edmund Gosse, and Maeterlinck are among the former, and Gustave Moreau, Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Puvis de Chavannes, and Watts among the latter. Yet it cannot be denied that the ragout is somewhat *faisandé*, and has a high *fin-de-siècle* flavor. Much reading in such magazines or long gazing on some of their pictures tends almost to make one sympathize with Dr. Nordau, and call out for a more Philistine diet of bread and cheese and a cup of cold water.

Cook-books seem to gravitate towards the new year equally with almanacs, calendars, statesmen's year-books, and other annuals. No fewer than four are on our table at this moment. 'The Majestic Family Cook-Book' of Adolphe Gallier (Putnams), is not the most pretentious, despite its title. It is a straightforward array of 1,300 selected recipes, and a few specimen bills of fare, without illustrations. 'The Cook-Book of "Oscar" [Tschirky, maître d'hôtel] of the Waldorf' (Chicago and New York: The Werner Co.) is a sumptuous quarto, elegant in its typography, and numbering 879 pages of text and 27 of index. It, too, is free from superfluities of any kind, and is unillustrated. The binding implies handling elsewhere than in the kitchen. Marion Harland and Christine Terhune Herrick unite in a 'National Cook-Book' (Scribners) for which their names are a guarantee of excellence. It has a nursery table, and a curiosity of contrasted menus in an English, a French, a German, and an Italian dinner respectively. It is well made for serviceability. Finally, we fairly have a gift-book in Margaret Huntington Hooker's 'Ye Gentlewoman's Housewifery,' a dainty volume pleasantly archaic in the style of its instructions, and with many household suggestions apart from the table. The contents altogether are avowedly gathered from the scrap-books of a past generation, and are perhaps none the worse for that, as they must needs make for simple living.

It seems to be a difficult matter to reduce modern meteorology to elementary form. Davis's 'Meteorology' is elementary only in name, and is suited to colleges rather than to schools. Waldo's 'Elementary Meteorology,' recently published by the American Book Co., is condensed rather than simplified, but comes distinctly nearer to school needs than Davis's. The book may be depended on as a correct statement of the modern aspects of its science; but as a presentation of the subject it leaves something to be desired from the teacher's standpoint. The order of chapters places the simpler phenomena of temperature, pressure, winds, moisture, and precipitation in the first 160 pages; then follow the same number of pages on the general and secondary circulation, local winds, and weather and climate. An inductive order of treatment is attempted, but with too frequent or too early return to deduction. The chapter on temperature, for example, does not open with an

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elementary statement of facts that call for generalization and explanation, but with a very much condensed physical explanation of heat, conduction, radiation; it then takes up solar heat and radiation, the orbital motion of the earth, and allied topics; next comes an account of thermometers and methods of observation; and not till fifteen pages have been passed are actual temperatures considered. The essentially difficult problem of the general circulation is not reduced to elementary form. It is doubtful if it can be so reduced. The book will, from its compactness, promote the study of meteorology better than any other now on the market.

Mrs. Elizabeth W. Latimer's 'Italy in the Nineteenth Century' (Chicago: McClurg) is one of those compilations of historical gossip which a certain class of readers mistake for history. It is, perhaps, too much to expect that gossip should be accurate, but certainly, where an author quotes very freely, often more than a page, from other works, at least their titles should be cited. Mrs. Latimer, however, usually appropriates without even giving credit. She has a provoking way of paraphrasing speeches, and of printing them with quotation marks, as if they were literally authentic. A single instance will illustrate her method; it refers to Charles Albert's memorable interview with Massimo d'Azeglio in 1845. "The sad face of the King suddenly brightened," she says, "his eyes flashed, and, seizing D'Azeglio's hand, he whispered in a low tone, as if afraid he might be overheard, 'Marquis, tell your friends that, when the hour comes, I will stake my crown, my life, and the lives of my sons for Italian independence!' Then, as if terrified at having said so much, he hastily withdrew" (p. 101). Now, D'Azeglio tells us nothing about having his hand seized by the King, or that sudden brightening of the eyes, or the dramatic whisper. He says that Charles Albert looked him straight in the eyes, and said calmly, but resolutely, "'Tell those gentlemen [the Liberals in Central Italy] to stay quiet and not to move, as there is for the present nothing to be done; but assure them that when the opportunity offers, my life, the life of my sons, my arms, my treasures, my army, shall all be spent for the Italian cause.'" And instead of slinking away as if frightened at what he had said, Charles Albert dismissed D'Azeglio in that dignified manner which any one who really knew his character would recognize as inevitable. (Compare D'Azeglio: 'I Miei Ricordi,' ii., 462-3). Is it worth while to write even "popular" history without greater regard for fact? The book has more than a score of half-tone portraits which give it real interest. We need not point out misprints and inaccuracies of dates, etc.; it is enough to remark that they begin on the title-page, where the solecism "Austro-Hungary" appears in large type.

Sig. Tommaso Caivano, to whose work on Guatemala we called attention a year ago, has recently issued a similar volume on Venezuela (Milan: Hoepli), whither he went immediately after President Cleveland's message on the boundary dispute. Three-fifths of this book is devoted to a rapid and interesting historical sketch of Venezuela—a proportion which does not seem exorbitant in view of the fact that it embraces the exploits of Bolivar, Sucre, and Páez, the chief heroes of Spanish America. Sig. Caivano's descriptions of the natural beauties of Venezuela have a freshness that reminds one of De Amicis. Possibly it is because the modern Italians are not jaded with travel that they can write thus enthusiastically. Of the resources, whether mineral or agricultural, of Venezuela Sig. Caivano holds so high an opinion that he urges his compatriots to immigrate thither as strongly as he urged them to keep away from Guatemala. He reviews very favorably the state of education, finances, and public order, and believes that the Government has at last attained a stability which is not likely to be upset by revolution. In a final chapter he discusses the dispute with England over the frontier, and concludes, chiefly on Venezuelan and Spanish evidence, that England's claims rest on no sufficient basis. Throughout his work he confirms his statements by references to original authorities, many of which can hardly be procured in our libraries. The value of having such an account of the Spanish-American republics from an intelligent European need hardly be pointed out, for recent events have led us to expect that our Government cannot be withheld from meddling on slight provocation in the affairs of our neighbors, and it is all the more important that we should be well informed about them.

Prof. F. Ascherson's "Deutscher Universitäts-Kalender," lately issued for the fiftieth time by Leonhard Simion in Berlin, gives the number of matriculated students in German universities during the summer semester of 1896 as 29,802, making an increase of 993 over the corresponding semester of 1895. This increase was in the following universities, the figures in brackets showing last year's attendance: Berlin 4,649 [4,265], Munich 3,777 [3,662], Leipzig 2,876 [2,788], Bonn 1,863 [1,760], Breslau 1,425 [1,407], Göttingen 1,007 [879], Marburg 965 [952], Greifswald 948 [879], Jena 761 [730], Giessen 630 [568], Rostock 500 [413], and the Academy of Münster 448 [409]. The following nine universities show a decrease: Halle 1,415 [1,465], Freiburg 1,379 [1,472], Würzburg 1,339 [1,342], Tübingen 1,172 [1,241], Heidelberg 1,164, [1,252], Erlangen 1,138 [1,154], Strassburg 938 [986], Kiel 708 [749], and Königsberg 700 [756]. The statistics of collective attendance during the past five years show that the number of students in the philosophical department has steadily increased more than 24 per cent., and in the law department nearly 17 per cent., while the attendance in the medical department has varied with an increase of 270 in 1894, a decrease of 323 in 1895, and an increase of 101 in 1896. Students of Protestant theology, on the other hand, have steadily decreased nearly 30 per cent., and during the past year there has been a slight diminution in the number of Catholic students of theology. It should be stated, however, that Prof. Ascherson's University Calendar does not include the Lyceum Hosianum, a Catholic institution in Braunsberg (Prussia), with a philosophical and theological faculty and about forty students.

Sophie van Adelung's "Jugenderrinerungen an Sophie Kowalewsky," in the *Rundschau* for December, are valuable as a supplement to the Leffler-Cajanello biography; but these intimate reminiscences are fascinating reading by themselves. They are from the pen of a near relative and friend in childhood and girlhood who "knew the bud out of which the flower was to develop"; but they embrace also episodic incidents of the famous woman mathematician's mature life. Being told with a spirit both loving and discerning, they reveal to us a very original and very attractive personality. There is furthermore found in these pages interesting information concerning the mathematical endowment of some of Ssofa's maternal ancestors (Ssofa, not Sonya, is the abbreviation of Sophia by which the girl was always called in the family). Her grandfather, a second lieutenant at fifteen, was at that early age charged with astronomical observations on the White Sea. The early life on the vast family estate, so vividly pictured in the letters embodied in the article, must also have exerted its influence upon Ssofa's later development. The father's name, for some reason given as Ivan Sergeyevitch in the biography, was Vassili Vassilyevitch Korvin-Krukovskoy.

M. de Vogüé begins, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December, a story, "Jean d'Agrève," to which lovers of French fiction of the more serious kind will thank us for calling their attention. There are pages in this first instalment whose rhythm and melancholy are those of Chateaubriand, and the story is sufficiently advanced to insure the gravity of the plot.

The *Critic* has concluded upon a monthly compilation from its own columns to be called "The *Month* in Literature, Art and Life," with the customary illustrations. The January number is before us, and enters the field with the *Bookman* and the *Bookbuyer*. On the other hand, the weekly *Outlook* adopts the octavo form (with cover) of the monthlies.

On January 15 the *Chap-Book* is to be enlarged "to the size of the English weekly reviews, and to begin at once the publication of criticisms of important new books"—these in addition to stories, poems, and essays, as heretofore, with pictures.

—A part of the price that we have to pay for our confederate form of government consists of the difficulties that it puts in the way of the collection of statistics. We have before us a volume published by royal authority containing the civil judicial statistics for England and Wales, and it is a natural impulse to institute comparisons between English and American conditions. But for the most part we of this country have few trustworthy data of this kind, and we must content ourselves with vague generalizations. The first impression which these statistics give is that the English are an extremely litigious people, for on the average there is one case in court every year for every 24 inhabitants, or say one for every five families. These are only civil cases; were the figures of the criminal courts added, the numbers would be even more startling. On the other hand, by far the greater part of these cases are in inferior courts and involve trifling sums; less than 7 per cent. of the proceedings originating in the High Court. The total amounts involved in litigation are, however, not large; assuming the total income of the country at the moderate sum of £1,200,000,000, only about one-third of one per cent. is ordered transferred in the course of litigation. This, we must remark, is exclusive of the chancery division. Through the Probate Court there passes £150,000,000 every year, and it may surprise some Americans to learn that the validity of wills is seldom contested; only 113 judgments in such cases being given in 1894, while the number of estates was almost 60,000. The thrift of the English people is shown by the fact that an estate was administered for every ten deaths, or at least one for every five adults, whether male or female; savings-banks deposits to the amount of £100 not requiring administration. It would seem that our ideas concerning costs in the English courts are exaggerated; Mr. Mac-

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donell, who prepares these statistics, considers that £80 would be the average per case, in the Queen's Bench Division, including lawyers' fees. Even so it cost £200,000 to get judgments for £500,000. In the county courts the average amount claimed is only £3, and the costs and fees were at the rate of 7 shillings for every pound recovered.

—The figures under the Bankruptcy Act are very confused, owing to statutory changes; but it is evident that the number of insolvents has diminished of recent years in proportion to population, and that the amount lost has also diminished in proportion to the total capital of the community. Probably the most interesting figures are those relating to divorce. When the divorce court was first opened, the number of divorces increased rapidly, but recently it has been stationary. There are more petitions for divorce and fewer for separation; the former being usually employed by men, the latter by women. Even now there are six times as many petitions for separation as for divorce, and the number of wives' petitions is to that of husbands as 93.6 is to 6.4. Only about two-thirds of these applications are finally allowed by the court, a much lower proportion than in some other countries—France, for example. M. Bertillon has asserted that only rich people can afford to get divorces in England, but Mr. Macdonell shows that the costs are nearly the same as in France—about £30. In France, on the other hand, almost half the applicants are assisted by the court on their plea of poverty. Whatever the cause may be, there are now every year in France for every 1,000 marriages 28 suits for divorce, while in England there are only 2.4. In 37 per cent. of the English cases in 1894 there were no children of the marriages. Upon the whole, Mr. Macdonell's tables give a favorable impression of the administration of justice in England.

—Mr. Poultney Bigelow has republished, in two volumes, under the title of 'The German Struggle for Liberty' (Harper & Bros.), the articles which he recently contributed upon this subject to *Harper's Magazine*. In book form, the chapters seem even more patchy and sketchy than they did while appearing in monthly instalments. They are, in fact, a bundle of more or less vividly related episodes from the history of the German war of liberation, strung together without any very clear perception of historical proportion. It is in no sense a history, but it is none the less pleasant reading of its sort, and is free from the glaring blunders into which writers without historical training are apt to fall. Mr. Bigelow makes no attempt to be impartial. His hero is the Prussian people in its revolt against Napoleon's domination, though he gives full meed of praise to the men who roused and organized the heroic struggle, to Stein and Scharnhorst, to Blücher and Gneisenau, and to Arndt, Körner, and Father Jahn. Mr. Bigelow has followed Prof. Freeman's example and visited every spot of which he makes mention in the course of his story, and these visits give a personal and subjective touch to his chapters which is perhaps the most attractive feature of the book. Most of these visits seem to have been made in his canoe, and it is with some justice that he pays a tribute to his boat in his quaint dedication, stating that "without her this book would never have been written." The text is profusely illustrated from drawings by R. Caton Woodville, the well-known English painter of battle scenes. But the same fault may be found with these illustrations as with those in the more sumptuous 'Life of Napoleon' by Prof. Sloane, that they lack actuality. Among these fancy pictures, however, are some fine reproductions of contemporary portraits, which worthily supplement Mr. Bigelow's graphic descriptions of his leading characters.

—Coleridge's opinion that "it would be a fine national custom to act such a series of dramatic histories [as is afforded by the English chronicle plays] in orderly succession" seems to have suggested Thomas Donovan's 'English Historical Plays' (Macmillan), "arranged [in two volumes] for acting, as well as for reading"—a publication, however, which makes its appeal rather to the stage manager than to the reader. It is, of course, a convenience to have the chief English chronicle plays of Shakspere and of his contemporaries, which treat the dramatic events in the reigns of England's sovereigns in nearly unbroken succession from the last half of the thirteenth century to the middle of the sixteenth, printed in their chronological sequence, but, fortunately or unfortunately, Mr. Donovan's ideas of an editor's privileges are those of the eighteenth century improvers of Shakspere's text, or of the modern acting manager; and what he offers us is not the pure text of the Elizabethan plays, but that text adapted to the supposed exigencies of the modern stage. With perfect frankness the editor tells us the changes which he has adopted. Peele's "Edward I." is reduced to about a third of its original length; "Henry IV." is compressed into a single play, as is Heywood's "Edward IV."; the three parts of "Henry VI." have been recast and the dénouements transposed; while "Henry VIII." "ends with Queen Katherine's death, its true dramatic climax." The difficulties arising from too frequent changes of scene, which are met on the modern stage by the foreshortened drop, or in Germany by the arrangement known as the "Shakspere Bühne," have been overcome by Mr. Donovan by "the elision of redundant and unimportant scenes," whereby "nearly one hundred changes of scene have been suppressed in fourteen plays," and by "a new division of acts and scenes" whereby "nearly all the battles are now fought between the acts, and therefore out of sight." This is magnificent, but it is not literature. We do not deny the claim, Better thus represented than not at all, but in their printed form dramatic texts so improved are obviously not designed for the closet.

—It is a pleasant Continental custom, well worthy of imitation elsewhere, and not wholly unknown in this country, to celebrate an anniversary or an event in the life of an eminent teacher by a collection of essays on subjects connected with his teaching. The latest example of this comes to us in the shape of a comely volume of 'Études d'histoire du Moyen Âge, dédiées à Gabriel Monod,' on the occasion of this scholar's election to the presidency of the section of historical and philological science in the École Pratique des Hautes-Études. The dedication of the work is signed by former pupils, a numerous list, in which we find the names of nearly all the men who are bringing the modern French historical school on a level with that of Germany—Hanotaux, Eugène Hubert, the Moliniers, Weil, Giry—and it is a pleasure to see in the distinguished group one of our compatriots, Prof. Gross of Harvard. So large a proportion of the hundred and fifty scholars who have joined in this graceful tribute occupy professorial chairs in institutions of learning that it is not easy to reckon the extent to which the influence of M. Monod's teaching will penetrate among the rising generation of French students, or the results which it will ultimately accomplish. What this means is well indicated by an introductory letter addressed to M. Monod by his friend and fellow-student Ernest Lavisse, contrasting the methods of instruction to which they were subjected in their youth with those now in vogue, the introduction of which is largely attributed to M. Monod's efforts.

—In the old days the professor delivered a series of dreary discourses, in which he endeavored to convey in compact form the history of the world, or of an age, or of a nation—a crude compilation of facts, to burden the memory or to be forgotten, as the case might be—without exciting his hearers to think or to use their own brains. A legitimate outcome of the system was an essay, which M. Lavisse half confesses to have written, on the Laws of the Barbarians, without having read those laws, which he would not have understood had he attempted the task. In marked contrast with this is the modern method, in accordance with which the teacher, surrounded by a group of earnest workers, instructs them in the mysteries of palæography and diplomatics, or shows them how to investigate and elucidate passages in documents and chronicles, teaching them, not barren facts, but how to work and think for themselves, taking nothing for granted, but analyzing and comparing the sources of history with resolute determination to find the truth or the nearest approximation to it. The fruitfulness of the new system is well exhibited in the series of essays composing this volume. Of these there are thirty-one, each a brief and compact investigation into some doubtful point connected with mediæval history. It is all serious work, not glittering generalities whose coruscations serve to conceal the superficial knowledge of the writer. Naturally France occupies the larger space, but scientific training has overcome the particularism which so long seemed to identify the French horizon with the boundaries of the nation, and these studies cover a wide field in both time and space. One of the most interesting, in fact, is an inquiry, by Ch. Petit Dutaillis, into the connection between Wickliffe's itinerant priests and the rising of 1381 under Wat Tyler.

—The Crawford Collection of Charters and Documents, edited by Napier and Stevenson, in the 'Anecdota Oxoniensia' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is the most satisfactory specimen of English philological scholarship that we have seen of late. The number of charters is not large, only nineteen, but some of them are here edited for the first time, and all are valuable and interesting. The most interesting, perhaps, is No. vii., the Anglo-Saxon letter from Dunstan to King Æthelred concerning lands in Cornwall. According to the editors, it is probably a (contemporary) copy of the original, dated between 980 and 988. It is interesting, not only as a peculiarly happy expression of simple epistolary business style, but also for its bearing upon a vexed question in English ecclesiastical history. Scarcely inferior in interest is No. ix., the will of Leofwine, son of Wulfstan, from the circumstance that Wulfstan is one of the heroes in the well-known poem on Brihtnoth's Death, otherwise

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called the 'Battle of Maldon.' Most of the charters relate to the monastery of Crediton. In all, the editors have printed 35 pp. of text and 131 of notes (including 15 of index). The ratio of notes to text may seem excessive to the ordinary student; but every one who has attempted to struggle with Early English diplomatics will congratulate himself upon the possession of such a volume. The editors have poured forth the richest treasures of linguistic and historical erudition, gathered from far and near. Literally, they have neglected nothing that might throw light upon their texts. From their conscientious labors the diligent student will gain a profound and novel insight into Old English affairs. We express the earnest wish and hope that the editors may not desist from their labors, their *mission*, in the truest sense of the term, but will give us, what we sorely need, an exhaustive study of the ill-digested mass of documents in Kemble, Birch, and Sweet.

THE JESUIT RELATIONS.

The Jesuit Relations, and Allied Documents. Travels and Explorations of the Jesuit Missionaries in New France. 1610–1791. Edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites. Vol. I. Acadia: 1610–1613. Vol. II. Acadia: 1612–1614. Cleveland: The Burrrows Brothers Co. 1896.

In 1854 the Parliament House of the United Canadas at Quebec was burned, and with it perished a wealth of documents relating to the Jesuits in North America. To repair in part the damage thus wrought, the Canadian Government issued in 1858 three thick octavos containing the Cramoisy series of Relations, eked out by a little supplementary material. The students chiefly intrusted with the task of editing were the Abbés Ferland, Laverdière, and Plante. The preface of this 1858 reprint begins by stating that, after the fire, "quelques amis de notre histoire désespéraient de retrouver jamais réunis tous les volumes des *Relations des Jésuites* qui ont rapport à la Nouvelle-France; d'autres, plus confiants, croyaient qu'un sentiment de patriotisme finirait par engager quelque éditeur à réédifier ce monument historique de nos ancêtres." Cramoisys were even then of the rarest, and students of Canadian history were beginning to realize the indispensable character of the Jesuit Relations. The result of some agitation at Quebec was that patriotism and antiquarian interest succeeded in bringing out a new edition of the work, which was good so far as it went, but which was manifestly incomplete. Now, after a lapse of more than forty years from the fire referred to, the Jesuit Relations are being published in proper and perhaps final form. The present series shows once again how signal has been the victory of New England over New France. The patriotism of the French Canadians is not the corner-stone upon which this large and important undertaking is based, but the historical curiosity of the English. Our modern zeal for every department of Americana is seldom disclosed more clearly than by the issue of these sixty sumptuous volumes. Mr. Thwaites and his assistants do, of course, rear a monument to the Jesuit heroes and martyrs, but one cannot doubt that their primary aim is to extend the borders of American history.

The Jesuit Relations are on many grounds worthy of the affectionate and solicitous care shown by their latest editor and his generous publishers. They are a revelation of religious enthusiasm, invincible ardor, and self-effacing modesty. They put this continent in touch with a great European movement, the Catholic Reaction. They are our surest source of information concerning the habits of savage life and the character of savage society. They furnish some political and much geographical information. Finally, their authenticity is unquestioned. It is not pretended that every letter written by a Jesuit on this continent, from the coming of Father Biard to the death of Father Well, a period of 180 years, has been found and printed. Sixty volumes would not contain one-quarter of their correspondence. But the best was culled by the local Superior, sent to the Provincial at Paris, and printed for him at the press of Stephen Cramoisy between 1632 and 1673. Immediate popularity attended their issue. The volumes were read almost out of their covers by the faithful who provided funds for the mission. Fresh and sometimes unauthorized editions appeared in both France and in Italy. Then, with the waning of Jesuit influence in the last half of the eighteenth century, the Relations drop out of sight. Two circumstances have contributed to secure their revival: the growth of historical interest, and the return of the Jesuits to America. During the past forty years half-a-dozen additions of various kinds have been made to the contents of the Cramoisy series. This new edition embraces everything that has appeared, and marshals much fresh material besides. Mr. Thwaites has been aided by one especially serviceable friend. "The Reverend Arthur E. Jones, S.J., archivist of St. Mary's College, Montreal, from the first opened his heart to this enterprise, and has not only given us *carte blanche* to ransack his priceless stores, but has contributed invaluable suggestions and data, almost without number." The Lenox Library comes second in the list of acknowledgments.

We have attempted to indicate the many-sided importance of the Jesuit Relations. Historians of the Old World and of the New World can draw upon them alike. If one cares little about the missionary features of the narrative, he may still find it full of historical or ethnological merit. For our own part, we prefer primarily to look at this attempt to convert the savages from the standpoint of the men who were engaged in it, rather than with a view to securing incidental information. The joy revealed over the baptism of a single wretched half-dead Huron or Algonkin ought to have an inspiring influence upon one, even if he does not believe that the Indian was especially benefited by the rite. The whole field of biography may be ransacked from one end to the other without disclosing greater moral courage and physical fortitude than was shown by Brébeuf during the hours of his martyrdom. Nor must it be forgotten that many of these missionaries prolonged a living death through year after year and in the teeth of failure. While their brethren in Paraguay were sweeping 300,000 natives within the fold, the Canadian Jesuits led a forlorn hope against the barbarism of unteachable races. The story has all the romance of a fight against overwhelming odds, or even against the forces of nature.

Perinde ac cadaver might have been chosen by Mr. Thwaites for the motto of this series. Traces of complaint or of rebellious will never appear, and if, in reading the letters, we are apt to underestimate the degree of obedience required, it is only because their consuming enthusiasm gives the missionaries the aspect of independent pioneers. Acquaviva, Vitelleschi, Caraffa, even the shade of Loyola himself, are thrown into the background; yet the training of the Spiritual Exercises and the commands of the General lurk behind the deeds and sacrifices of Le Jeune, Garnier, Jogues, Lalemant, and Brébeuf. One can adjust the bearings of the Jesuit Relations only by regarding them as the record of a single phase in the history of that movement which began at the siege of Pampeluna, and which was not terminated with the suppression of the order in 1773. The perseverance of the advance guard against the heathenism of America is paralleled by the perseverance of the advance guard against the heresy of Europe. The animating impulse is the same in both cases. The Society of Jesus is an organism; its extremities must be examined as well as its torso. The history of New France, much more than that of New England, depends for interest on its European affiliations, and among these the Jesuit missionary movement stands out first.

The initial attempt of the fathers of the black robe to secure a foothold on this continent was made in 1611, when Biard and Massé landed at Port Royal in Acadia. At the outset they encountered two great obstacles, the difficulties presented by the Indian language and the rivalry of the English. They moved in 1613 to Mount Desert, and might have accomplished something among the well-disposed Abenakis had not the descent of Argall destroyed both colony and mission. A second attempt was similarly foiled by political reasons. Champlain brought over the Récollets in 1614, and reinforced them, as their numbers were depleted, by Jesuits. Brébeuf and Anne de Nouë, after receiving some rudimentary instruction in the Huron tongue, went to the field which had been abandoned by Le Caron, Viel, and Sagard. Brébeuf's first residence among the Hurons lasted three years. He had just returned to Quebec when Kirk's expedition broke up the colony and suspended French activity in America until after the treaty of St.-Germain-en-Laye. The Jesuits withdrew with the feeling that though their work had twice been interrupted by accidental causes, the chances of evangelistic success were good. They hastened to return when the English flag had been hauled down from the battlements of St. Louis. On July 5, 1632, Paul Le Jeune and Anne de Nouë landed at Quebec and laid the foundation of that celebrated residence, Notre Dame des Anges.

It cannot be urged that the Jesuits, during the period of their third attempt to convert the North American Indian, failed through the lack of a fair opportunity. They mastered the language difficulty which had been so great an obstacle to their predecessors. They entered all the principal nations, and ministered to them during times of pestilence and famine when, it might be supposed, the hearts of men would be most touched. Their French extraction and connections gave them a hearing and a toleration which would often have been denied to isolated individuals. They left no stone unturned which duty, heroism, and skill could move, and they were supported by whatever religious enthusiasm the Catholic France of Richelieu's era possessed. They were simply defeated by the ferocity and unteachableness of the Indians themselves. Beneath the strong light of the Jesuit Relations, Chateaubriand's idealized red man, and even Cooper's less extravagant type, vanish into thin air.

Le Jeune, the first Superior of Notre Dame des Anges, began his own efforts with the Montagnais branch of the Algonquins. In October, 1633, he set out for the Lake St. John

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region with a roving band, and shared all its sufferings for six months. He sought to mollify the sorcerer of the tribe by praise and friendship, "which I threw to him as a bait whereby I might catch him in the net of truth." When the inevitable famine came, he erected a crucifix and a reliquary, and sent the hunters off with his blessing. Yet when they returned with game, they made bold to hint that they were not to be deceived by the fallacy of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, and in their brutality excluded Le Jeune from their supper. He was the universal butt and accomplished next to nothing. Shaken in health, he was glad to reach Quebec alive.

While Le Jeune was pursuing the Montagnais in their Northern wanderings, three of his brethren were beginning the most notable of Jesuit campaigns in North America. During the summer of 1633 it had been resolved to attack once more the district which the Récollets had deserted, and in which Brébeuf alone had met with enough success to warrant the renewal of a mission. Lalemant five years later styled this Huron country "une des principales fortresses et comme un donjon des Démons." It held out, besides the allurements of a forlorn hope, the promise of far-reaching usefulnesss among tribes that were kindred to and partially dependent on the Hurons. Brébeuf himself, Daniel, and Davost were the three missionaries selected to lead the charge. After a year of linguistic studies they attached themselves in 1634 to the returning fur-fleet of the year, and travelled 900 miles from Three Rivers before they reached the settlements where they were to endure so much.

Parkman, whose sympathy with the heroic was very marked, mastered the details of the Huron mission and presented them to the general reader in permanent form. The means used by the Jesuits were crude, but well adapted to circumstances. Some of their contrivances to win the credence of the savages remind one of the villain's wiles in Stevenson's 'Beach of Falesà.' In place of the Æolian harp one has here a clock, a magnet, a microscope, and a prism. After the clock had struck its last stroke a father would cry "Stop," and the beholders marvelled at his superhuman power. Withal, converts came slowly, for the Hurons could not get over the difference between themselves and the French. The Christian God, they admitted, answered admirably for the latter, but was not susceptible of translation to the wilderness. Presents were accepted with alacrity; converts came slowly. A few dying infants were baptized, and unction was given to an occasional adult who was *in articulo mortis*. After three years the number of proselytes was only 100, and the braves laid the ravages of smallpox at the missionaries' door. Even the sound advice which the Jesuits gave in many practical matters connected with the war against the Iroquois (advice sometimes accepted, as in the case of fort construction), availed them little. After fifteen years of fair trial, the mission was already a proved failure when the Huron race perished under the tomahawk of the Five Nations in 1649. With the fall of St. Ignace, followed on March 16 by the torture and death of Brébeuf and Lalemant, the most dramatic incident of the Jesuit Relations ends.

Distinctly second in interest to the Huron mission, but still of great historical importance, are the missions to the Iroquois and to the Ottawas. The first of these fields was not abandoned till 1687, and the second not till 1781, eight years after the promulgation of the brief *Dominus ac Redemptor* which suppressed the Jesuit Order. The outstanding hero of the Iroquois mission is Isaac Jogues, tortured by the Mohawks in 1642, and murdered by them on his return to the region of Lake George in 1646. He was rescued by the Dutch from the hands of his tormentors, and returned in a mutilated condition to France, to be idolized by all devotees within the circle of Jesuit influence, including even Anne of Austria and her maids of honor. He could be persuaded to remain at home only three months. A consuming enthusiasm drove him back to the wilderness and its fiendish denizens. The seventeenth century presents few contrasts more strking than that of Anne of Austria kissing the lacerated fingers of Isaac Jogues. The Ottawa mission, at present best known through Marquette, is to receive fresh illustration during the progress of this series by the publication of his last journal, which has long been preserved in manuscript by the Jesuits of St. Mary's College, Montreal.

The Relations themselves are of very unequal historical merit. The fathers were so concerned about the spiritual condition of their converts that they become prolix in describing both morbid and healthy symptoms. The following headings from a Relation of 1640 show how religious pathology comes in: "Des Sauvages baptisez, et des bonnes actions de cette nouvelle Église." "Continuation du mesme discours." "Continuation du mesme sujet." "Continuation des actions de nos nouveaux Chrestiens." "De la bonne disposition de quelques Sauvages non encore baptisez." "De la providence de Dieu au choix de quelques uns et au rebut de quelques autres." "De l'espérance qu'on a de la conversion de plusieurs Sauvages." Many things which were of vital moment to the missionaries are incidental matters to us, while what they regarded as the incidental conditions of their work are matters of vital moment to the modern historian. Concerning the value of these letters to the ethnologist there can be no two opinions. Parkman covers the ground in a single sentence when he says: "With regard to the condition and character of the primitive inhabitants of North America, it is impossible to exaggerate their value as an authority."

Some months ago, in referring to the project of this new edition, we indicated its monumental character and the care taken to render it in every way worthy of its subject. The first of the sixty volumes quite equals our expectation in respect to both editing and printing. Mr. Thwaites's general introduction is admirable; succinct, yet comprehensive. The translation is exact without being awkward. In a word, the editors and the public have every reason to expect the fortunate conclusion of a great task. The opening volume deals with the Acadian Mission from 1610 to 1613. Lescarbot's "Conversion des Sauvages" and the seven other pieces which accompany it form a prelude to the more crowded action of the years succeeding Le Jeune's establishment at Notre Dame des Anges. The two last, "Canadicæ Missionis Relatio" and "De Regione et Moribus Canadensium," are not contemporary with the rest. Their author, Father Joseph Jouvency, wrote at the beginning of the eighteenth century about the Acadian mission and Indian characteristics. His Latin is very tolerable and has been well Englished by Mr. Giese and Mr. Wolcott.

Mr. Thwaites asks for suggestions, and we hasten to make one. In order to secure perfect accuracy of reproduction the editor follows earlier usage in putting *Les Relations des Jésuites* at the head of every page. This tells the reader nothing, whereas *Lescarbot*, *Biard*, etc., would catch the eye and facilitate reference. Librarians, especially, would thank Mr. Thwaites if he made his headlines indicate the nature of the contents. We have found no inaccuracies worth mentioning in the first volume. One misplaced grave accent on p. 42 and a slight misapprehension in the map as to the true source of the St. Francis River are the merest trifles. Mr. Thwaites appears to us to underestimate the Huron population in the statement that it "numbered about 16,000 souls." Brébeuf, writing in 1635, places it at 30,000. "Il y a vingt Bourgades, qui disent environs trente mille âmes, sous une mesme langue, et encore assez facile à qui a quelque maistre." However, the question is difficult to determine.

Three of the four documents in the second volume relate to Poutrincourt's colony at Port Royal, and the other is a general account of Jesuit experiences in 1613 and 1614, including a description of Argall's descent upon the French at Mount Desert. The practical value of Mr. Thwaites's work is disclosed by a reference to the bibliographical data given at the end of the book. Each of the pieces comes from a separate source: the first, Biard's "Lettre au R. P. Provincial, à Paris," from Carayon's 'Première Mission'; the second, Biard's "Missio Canadensis," from O'Callaghan; the third, Lescarbot's 'Relation Dernière,' from a copy in Harvard College Library; and the fourth, the "Relatio Rerum Gestarum," from the "Annuæ Litteræ Societatis Jesu." Poutrincourt was a man after the Jesuits' own hearts, and he is deluged with praise by both Biard and Lescarbot. He became an intimate friend of the chief sagamore of the Siroquois, Memberton, a person who is portrayed as having been half a Christian before Christianity was preached to him, and as having alone among the converts proclaimed Christianity by his life. Lescarbot gives an interesting list of the French nobles who stood sponsors to the earliest native proselytes. The first half dozen personages on the roll are the Prince de Condé, the Prince de Conty, the Comte de Soissons, the Duc de Nevers, and the Prince de Joinville! This instalment of Jesuit Relations is free from tedious detail concerning the professional aspects of the mission, and will even afford entertainment to the lover of adventure who has never heard of Poutrincourt, or Biard, or Port Royal.

We trust that the remainder of the series will, like the present volumes, demand nothing beyond monotony of praise.

PROFESSOR SKEAT.

A Student's Pastime. By the Rev. Walter W. Skeat. Macmillan Co. 1896.

ANOTHER volume by Prof. Skeat, of nearly 500 pages. It is number 58 in the list he gives of the books he has seen through the press, and many of the numbers cover several volumes. The proof-reading alone of all these books must have been a great task. But having become accustomed to Prof. Skeat's productiveness, students of English would be surprised if he did not turn out two or three volumes every year. That his books are welcome is a matter of course, and this one will be so, though in a different way from most

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that have preceded it. The volume has two parts: an introduction of nearly 100 pages, and a collection of the author's contributions to *Notes and Queries* during the past thirty years. The introduction consists of an autobiography, and a sketch of the various philological and literary enterprises with which the author has been remotely connected. He puts himself and his work before the world in a way that challenges and justifies a consideration of the personal aspects of his career. The life of a man whose name is familiar to every lover of his mother tongue must be a matter of interest to many of them. It is evident that Prof. Skeat thinks so himself, and therefore he lifts the veil of formality, and gives us an opportunity of peeping in upon his private life. This he does with amusing naïveté and pride.

He was born November 21, 1835, "five years before the Princess Royal, as she used to be called, on the same day." This was in Mount Street, Park Lane; but from his second to his fourteenth year the family lived at Perry Hill, Sydenham. He, thus, early became acquainted with the dialects of West Kent, London, and Essex, but more particularly with that of South Shropshire, where he often visited relatives. For a time he was at King's College School in the Strand, under the instruction of the Anglo-Saxon scholar Oswald Cockayne, who taught him Latin, however, not Old English, and from whom he believes he "imbibed the notion of what is known as scholarship." At the last school that received him, "that of Sir Roger Cholmeley at Highgate, founded in the reign of Elizabeth, in 1565," he obtained as a prize a copy of Stevens and Malone's Shakspere. Here, too, he got some idea of the value of English literature; "for it was customary to give the boys occasional scraps of it, on which to exercise their skill by translating them into Greek and Latin verse," but he adds that no portion of our literature was ever explained to him at any of his five schools. There was, however, a fine edition of Spenser in the library of one of the schools, and he devoted himself to a careful study of it. During a year spent at Cambridge in preparation for college, he became familiar with other English writers. He thus acquired a love for English literature, and consequently ventures to indulge in certain naïve judgments on literature and the study of it. To the earlier literature and to philological study his attention was first drawn by one of his school-books, Mrs. Markham's 'History of England.'

"Desirous of entering a college which should be large enough for forming acquaintances, and not so large as to overwhelm me with competition," he entered Christ's College, and gloried in being a fellow-collegian of Milton and Darwin. In 1870 he was elected to a fellowship, but soon after was ordained and spent the first two years of his married life as a curate of East Dereham, where he became familiar with the Norfolk dialect. In the parish church is the tomb of Cowper; and in the hall of one of the principal houses in the market-place he was shown "the sofa." His next curacy was at Godalming, nearer London; but the climate proved unsuitable, and at last an attack of a diphtheritic character totally unfitted him for clerical work and rendered a long rest necessary. In the vein of the earlier novelists, he says:

"I thus found myself, in the end of 1863, at the age of twenty-eight, in the desolate condition of finding my chosen career brought to a sudden end, without any idea as to my future course, and even without much prospect of ever again rendering any help to my fellow-creatures, which (I can truly say) has always been my object as regards this present world. Man proposes, but God disposes," etc.

He returned to Cambridge, where he became a mathematical lecturer, and received private pupils. As this left him much time, he took up the study of Anglo-Saxon, and soon fell to making glossaries and editing Middle English texts. In 1878 he was made Professor of Anglo-Saxon in Cambridge on the foundation of Dr. Bosworth. Of his professional duties he says:

"Considering that Anglo-Saxon is not a subject in very great request, it might easily have happened, especially at the beginning of my professional work, that I might some day be prepared to lecture, and might find no one to listen. Curiously enough, this has never actually happened; in every year there have been some two or three at least who, for some reason or other, have wanted instruction."

At one time he took an *ad-eundem* degree at Oxford and had an opportunity of seeing something of Oxford life. He still visits the neighboring university from time to time, and, in characteristic words, expresses his idea of that sort of thing and of the mutual relations of the two great seats of learning:

"It is a good thing for a student of one university to know something of the ways of the other, without actual migration; and I rather wonder that the idea is not more frequently entertained. The chief reason against it is to be found in the detestable arrangement whereby the London and Northwestern Railway compels every traveller to spend three hours over a journey that might be completed in a little more than two. An enforced wait of three-fourths of an hour or so at the cheerless Bletchley station is decidedly unaccommodating and ruthless; and there can be little doubt that this is the chief cause that keeps the two Universities apart."

And this is about all that the modern English lexicographer has to tell us of his life. The spirit that pervades it does not seem to be a genial one. We see much of the pugnacious tendencies of Hughes's Brown family, but miss their more kindly qualities. The English curate did not change much when he became a philologist. He holds that "every true scholar is in some degree a missionary," whose duty it is to "fight against all the forms of error that beset the study" to which he has devoted himself. And of fighting Professor Skeat has done not a little. He relished Zupitza's gentleness in pointing out his slips, but he wonders when others find fault with his own severity. There surely is a high-handed way in much of his criticism; but we must not forget that he lives at an English university where every one feels himself justified in explaining and laying down laws for his mother-tongue, no matter what his ignorance of the language and of philological principles in general. It is, doubtless, a shame, but it is, perhaps, none the less true, that there is still need in England of such long and reiterated contentions as those that Professor Skeat makes against the idea that the Romans pronounced Latin as we pronounce English, and that modern English is derived from modern German. A sadder thing is that the denouncer of English weaknesses is himself a product of English conditions. He, too, lacks the thorough training that the German scholar has received; he, also, fails to avail himself of all the results of the work of other scholars; and, like some of his countrymen, he has a tendency to guess and to ignore linguistic principles. In his very efforts to be a scholar of the world, he betrays his insularity. Speaking of the advance in our knowledge of Old English, he says: "Perhaps the most unexpected result of modern times is the extension of Anglo-Saxon studies to the continent of America." He all too frequently shows anxiety lest the world forget that it was he who first found out this etymology or put that idea into words; and now for the third time he boasts in print that he can read Middle English as easily as the English of to-day. All development in philological study in England he regards as circling about and dependent on him. And because certain Continental etymological dictionaries (like Kluge's) have appeared since his was published, he regards them as inspired by and modelled after his book.

Of his friends we learn a little here and there, but mostly concerning their externalities, their peculiarities, and their favorite stories. Of Kemble he says: "I remember him as a quiet but cheery old gentleman, who more than once stayed with me when he came to Cambridge to consult MSS. He had sharp, quick eyesight, and wrote a very legible hand at a quite unusual pace." It is amusing to see the philologian come out even at the bedside of the sick: "Miss Jackson became a sad invalid in her later years, being confined to one room and often to bed for long periods, and suffering much pain; but she bore her trials with much courage and even cheerfulness, and at all times took much interest in English dialects and etymology."

The body of the book need not detain us long. Much of the matter is valuable—just as are many of the other contributions that appear in *Notes and Queries*. Why, however, such matter should be reprinted in a volume with no other bond of union than that it was written by the same man is a mystery. Skeat's contributions to *Notes and Queries* deal with etymology, with the history of the English language, literature, and people, with dialectic and provincial English, with proverbs, folk-lore, superstitions, sleight-of-hand tricks, and what not. He discusses the first burning for heresy in England; quotes a "poem" that Sir William Davenant contrived to write with hardly a *the* or an *a* in it; and gives a recipe for making two-faced pictures by cutting them in strips which show one picture or word as you approach and another as you pass; and he gravely adds: "[P. S. Now (in 1895) used to advertise 'Sunlight Soap.']" He urges that it isn't fair to write badly, hoping thus to have one's MS. put into the hands of the best compositor in the printing-office:

"The morality of it is more than questionable; and it ought surely to be understood, amongst gentlemen, that a writer who *purposely* writes illegibly commits a most cowardly and unjustifiable crime against the unfortunate compositors. [P. S. in 1895. I have always found that the compositors set up my 'copy' admirably; precisely because they appreciate its legibility. The Controller of the Clarendon Press is my witness to this.]"

Many of the really philological contributions Skeat made to *Notes and Queries* were confessedly unoriginal—a five-page outline of Germanic phonology, a ten-page list of English grammars "made many years ago by Sir F. Madden . . . from cuttings from booksellers' catalogues"—or had a temporary purpose only, as, for example, six pages of additions to Halliwell's Dictionary published by Skeat for the use of Dr. Murray, who was at the time engaged on the letters in question; but all this is reprinted here. In the introduction the author actually reprints almost the entire preface of his Dictionary—nine

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pages in all—with the plea that, as "few people read a preface to a dictionary printed in quarto form, it will probably be new to most of my readers." It would, indeed, be difficult to find another such case of book-making. The introduction closes with the remark that the author has made similar contributions "to many other publications besides *Notes and Queries*, and that, if the reception of the present book is sufficiently encouraging, it will be easy to produce another volume, or even two more, of a like kind."

We trust that Prof. Skeat will carefully consider this matter. It is doubtless very easy to make books in this way, and they will sell. But as he certainly has at heart the welfare of his science and the advantage of his fellow-scholars, it will not be difficult to persuade him to do his reprinting in a different way. It is now fourteen years since he issued the supplement to his Dictionary. Since then he and many others have contributed much toward the advancement of the subject. The material is in so many different journals that, even if one has access to them all, as few have, the time needed to run down a question is rarely at one's disposal. If Prof. Skeat will bring all this material under one alphabet in the form of a supplement to his Dictionary, even if he has time to do no more than reprint the material without digesting it, he will do all English scholars a great service and make a very salable book. He can then, if he chooses, gather his miscellaneous contributions into another volume, which will "interest the curious." But even in this we hope he will not reprint well-known facts merely "because I had much to do with their enunciation or explanation, and their appearance in *N. and Q.* has become a matter of history."

La Jeunesse d'un Tsar. Paul 1er et Catherine II. Par Dmitri Kobeko. Tiré du Russe par Dmitri de Benckendorff. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's. 1896.

To the perennial interest in the character and reign of Catherine the Second the special interest is added, just at the present moment in Russia, of the centenary of her death. To that intensified interest, in anticipation, no doubt, is due the volume upon Paul I. which this French version represents. The reign of Catherine II., and the part which her son played therein, as well as during his own very brief reign following, are inexhaustibly absorbing themes for Russian writers, as well as for historical investigators of foreign lands who desire to fathom the present policy and aims of the giant empire, since they, almost equally with the reign of Peter the Great, lie at the bottom of many problems. One of the attractions of the subject lies in its difficulty, for both the native and the foreigner; though the difficulty is diametrically opposite in the two cases. The foreigner, who is free to tell the whole truth about the Empress Catherine's moral character and her policy at home and abroad, and is anxious to show as little reserve as possible, rarely has access to original documents in Russia, even when he is capable of deciphering them. Paul I.'s life, and especially his death, which require the examination of such documents, present another difficulty equally great. The Russian who may have access to state and other papers has to pass the censorship. It may be merely an accident that several noteworthy Russian histories either come to a sudden end with the reign of Catherine's predecessor, or devote but scant space and obscure allusions, in place of full and open dissection, to the famous Empress's long and vitally important reign and to Paul's brief and tragic career on the throne. For these very reasons, every new volume on the subject is read with eager interest and hope that some new or authoritative light may be shed on debated points.

It cannot be said of the volume before us that it adds anything of particular value to our previous information, despite its interest. It forms the introduction to a promised study of the reign of Paul I., and suffers from this division of what ought to be one integral whole. This in the first place. In the second, the translator has very honestly but bafflingly announced on the title-page that it is "drawn from" the Russian original. Why he should have hesitated to publish in France what was permitted in Russia is a puzzle, especially as it leaves the reader in doubt as to whether the evident excisions throughout and the decidedly scrappy abruptness of the early chapters are due to the author or to the adapter. It is plain that adverse criticism must be confined rather narrowly to the adaptation, and does not, of necessity, apply to the Russian original.

To begin with, it would be of interest to know whether the author entertains any settled views as to the parentage of Paul I., which has often been questioned, and as to whether that or her jealousy of his right to the throne and her insatiable ambition alone were the cause of Catherine's harsh treatment of her son. Hazardous as is this point, it could have been dealt with in a manner which would have added to our definite knowledge without incurring danger from the official critics who rule on such affairs in all monarchical lands; and the author, shortly after he has mentioned Paul's birth, proves that he thoroughly understands the method of conveying his meaning by the proper sort of hint. For example, in narrating Catherine's invitation to D'Alembert to become her son's preceptor, he quotes D'Alembert's letter to Voltaire on the subject: "Do you know that I have been invited—I, who have not the honor to be a Jesuit—to undertake the education of the Grand Duke of Russia? But I am too subject to hemorrhoids, and they are too dangerous in that country." This is a fairly plain allusion to the fact that Catherine's agents had made away with her husband, the Emperor Peter III., at the palace of Ropsha, and that the bereaved widow had announced to his (her) subjects his death as caused by hemorrhoids. It remains to be seen which mode of treatment the author will apply to another royally sensitive topic in his second volume, namely, the manner of Paul I.'s death and the share therein of his son, Alexander I.

The special value of the present book lies in its ample quotations from the autobiographical notes of the persons concerned, and the diaries and reports of the notable men, foreign ambassadors as well as Russian dignitaries, of that epoch. It is curious to see how Catherine robbed her son of all his children at their birth, after we have read her own pathetic complaints against the Empress Elizabeth's identical treatment of herself, wherein she says that, in the course of the first seven months of Paul's life, she was allowed to see him but thrice. In many other instances similar instructive parallels might be drawn between the different passages of the book; as, Catherine's fickleness in the majority of her affections, and obstinacy in isolated instances which are not generally regarded as legitimate causes of blame in her case, while Paul, who is admitted to have been infinitely her superior in morality, is ordinarily censured for his sudden warm affections in friendship, and his later coldness, and his occasional obstinacy. The crudity of these comparisons is lessened by the dexterous way in which the author has arranged the extracts from the records of personal intimates and preceptors of mother and son.

Paul, as Grand Duke Heir, had much to endure from his imperious, jealous, and selfish mother, and he bore it, with very few exceptions, in the most admirable spirit of filial respect and loyal obedience as first subject in the realm. His character, in this light, as well as in his domestic life with his two wives, during his painfully long ordeal of banishment from his mother's heart, confidence, and favor, is set forth in the most amiable and most just manner. It was only towards the end of Catherine's reign, after many years of brave resistance to the undermining effects of cruel treatment and intrigue against him from his mother, that Paul's character changed for the worse, and his irritable, overbearing, hereditary temper took on the distinguishing tinge of mental aberration. Not only is this gradual deterioration adequately shown, but the author succeeds in making the unfortunate Paul a vivid personality and sympathetic to feeling hearts, while preserving the atmosphere of aloofness which especially characterizes the ordinary conception of his position. He makes it perfectly clear, even to the prejudiced reader, that Paul I. was well endowed mentally, fit to hold his place with the best royal personages of his time; a devoted husband, an admirable son, with qualities which might have made him a great ruler, and saved him from the military-martinet mania which was fostered, perhaps created, by his mother's attitude. This, by estranging him, excluding him, from all state business and councils, made him fix his residence chiefly at Gatchina and Pavlovsk, and busy himself to wearying minuteness with the petty points of military life and drill, in the hours when he rested from assiduous cultivation of his mind in his wife's famous literary circle. This second wife, Marie Feodorovna, is delightfully portrayed. A model wife, mother, Empress, her memory is revered and always will be in the land of her adoption, where her influence still lingers. A lady of the Court still regards it as the highest praise if she earns the verdict: "She is of the school (of manners and conduct) of Marie Feodorovna."

One misses many charming and vivifying details, both in her life and in that of her husband, which would have added greatly to the picture, had it been possible to weld this volume and its promised sequel in one work. Nevertheless, with all its omissions, reticences, and brevity (it seems brief, though it covers 425 pages), it is a book to read and to keep. The final summing up of Paul's character is worth quoting as an introduction and incentive to the perusal of this biography:

"What had a decisive influence upon his character was the fact that, from his early infancy, he had, in a manner, been imbued with reasons for fear and with suspicions, and that his extreme need of activity had been constantly thwarted until, on arriving at mature age, he ascended the throne. There is no doubt that, under no reign so much as under that of Paul, could so much good have been done to the country, had the persons who surrounded him been guided by the love of their country, instead of being actuated by wholly personal aims."

The general prejudice against Paul I. is so strongly rooted abroad that this judgment should be borne in mind by those who would

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reach a just estimate of the man and of his epoch.

If any later editions of this book should be called for, it would be well that a competent person should make a thorough revision. The errors in the Russian names, the varieties of orthography even on one page in one name, are embarrassing to foreign readers. There are also errors in dates, and (which is surprising in a publication of a well-known house) errors in the French.

Outlines of the Philosophy of English Literature. By Greenough White. Part I. The Middle Ages. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1896.

ENCOURAGED by the deservedly favorable judgments passed on his sketch of the 'Philosophy of American Literature,' Mr. Greenough White has essayed a harder task. With the Middle Ages for his period—and these he has construed as beginning with the twelfth century and ending with the death of Bloody Mary in 1558—he has endeavored "to describe the process of mental development; to determine the limits and character of literary ages; to get at the basal principle of each successive age and trace its derivation from that which preceded it." His method requires him to study the political, religious, and social history, not merely of England, but of France, Italy, and Germany, and to trace the relations of these complex matters to the origin and development of English literature in the period—or rather the succession of periods—which he desires to characterize. To accomplish all this in the compass of 266 pages would demand, not only a great deal of knowledge, but powers of compression and unification quite extraordinary.

We shall not question Mr. White's possession of these powers, nor shall we enter into a discussion of the soundness or extent of his historical acquirements. Such a discussion is not necessary, for, unhappily, his work has one fundamental defect which no amount of literary skill or historical learning can supply: the author's acquaintance with the literary monuments of his period is insufficient. If a writer does not know the facts of a subject broadly and solidly, it may well pass for axiomatic that he cannot profitably discuss the "philosophy" of that subject; and this, we regret to say, is Mr. White's case with regard to mediæval English literature, and, indeed, with regard to mediæval literature in general.

To begin with, his account of the Anglo-Saxon period is vague and ineffectual. We shall not quarrel with him for refusing to regard Anglo-Saxon as English, and for making English literature begin with Layamon. There is a kind of justification for this point of view, and, even if there were none, the hyperbole of some professed Anglo-Saxonists might easily drive the most philosophical historian of letters into an extreme position. What we object to is Mr. White's failure to see that one cannot explain English literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer without determining, first of all, the literary and intellectual characteristics of the people conquered, and that this cannot be done without a study of Anglo-Saxon literature, such as it is. In the eleven pages which Mr. White gives to the Saxon period, he had space enough for just such a rapid summary as was needed; but his knowledge of the subject was apparently inadequate, and we have, instead, a string of rambling and often misleading remarks, of no value and little significance. It would have been better to omit this chapter altogether.

Scarcely more satisfactory is Mr. White's treatment of the Middle English period. A writer on mediæval literature is surely bound to give some clear account, however brief, of "the matter of Britain," "the matter of Troy," the "romances of adventure," the *chansons de geste*, the influence of Oriental fiction. Mr. White knows that there are questions about all these things, but he is unfamiliar with the best authorities on the several subjects; in fact, he has no clear conception of the real problems in each case. His account of the Arthur romances, for instance, is strangely inaccurate and incomplete, though he considers them at some length. Walter Map is unquestioningly credited with an Anglo-Norman prose 'Quest of the Holy Grail,' and with "part, at least," of a 'Lancelot du Lac.' Chrestien is mentioned only as "a prolific versifier" who "made the Grail the motive of his romance of 'Percevale.'" We see no evidence that the author has read a line of Chrestien, or that he has pushed his researches far enough to discover a catalogue of his works. For Tristan we are referred to Gottfried von Strassburg: there is no suggestion of the origin or relations of Gottfried's poem. The great problem of the *Lais* is not even mentioned: Chestre's 'Launfal' is put in the reign of Edward IV., and there is no hint that it has any connection with Marie de France. To 'Gawain and the Green Knight' two pages are given, but the story is told with curious inaccuracy, and the conclusion of the whole matter is perversely made into an allegory. "What is the Green Knight," we are asked, "but a type of nature—not the inanimate world, but the deathless life that is in nature?"—and so on, in a strain that would astonish the fourteenth-century poet if he could hear it.

The Round Table romances are not the only subject in Middle English on which Mr. White's information is imperfect. Nothing could be more erroneous than what he says about Sir John Mandeville and his 'Travels.' He still believes the old story, long ago exploded, about Sir John's being an English traveller who wrote originally in Latin, afterwards making a translation of his own book into his mother tongue. Yet it would not have been hard for Mr. White to avoid these mistakes. Even so accessible a work of reference as the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' would have set him right. The chapter on Chaucer is unsatisfying, both from the scholar's point of view and from the critic's. To ascribe 'The Court of Love' to Chaucer after all that has been said and written on that unlucky poem, is a literary sin that can claim slight indulgence. For Gower Mr. White has a somewhat excessive admiration.

We have given this little book more space than it deserves because it is a kind of "type." It is interesting, well-written, brief, and its fundamental design is good. All these qualities make it attractive, especially to the "general reader" in our scrambling decade. But it is too inaccurate to be a safe guide to those most likely to resort to it for assistance.

Scholar Gipsies. By John Buchan. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THIS book interests in the beginning because it is printed for the "Arcady Library" from the strong types of the Bodley Head Press; next, because the few etchings, by Mr. D. Y. Cameron, which illustrate it, have a curious individuality, not unpleasing. The title piques a curiosity more easily satisfied, for it is merely the label which the author has chosen for the first of a number of essays on life and nature in the upper valley of Tweed, treating of the men of those uplands, their traditions, country, beasts, birds, fishes, trees, and flowers—the very quality of soil and atmosphere that makes them at once shrewd, sagacious, reckless, passionate, practical, and imaginative. These essays, he tells us, were all written in youth. Of youth they certainly retain the fervor and enthusiasm; but they are written in a mature and cultivated style. Their substance is charming, and, albeit concerned with Scotch life and nature, is novel. The Scotch classics and our contemporary favorites of the Scotch renaissance have made us familiar with Scotland's historic places—the cities and the Highlands; but Peebleshire we scarcely know at all, in spite of its traditions of border warfare, and its endearing scenery, which Mr. Buchan describes thus. It is, he says, "an epitome of landscape," "a country of surprises."

> "The cottar's garden, gay with all seasons' flowers, runs into the heather; reapers ply their trade within hearing of the thrush and the curlew; a meadow of hay is own neighbor to a grim pine forest; and a sullen stream in one field may be an eddying torrent in the next. The art of the epigrammatist would be expended in vain in searching for the applicable word. One might call it austere, but for the grace of the woods; barren, but for the fresh, green meadows and fruitful gardens; homely, were it not for some great blue shoulder of hill which bars the sky and gives solemnity to the little ridges. It is a country of contradictions, blended into harmony by that subtle Border charm which relates the crags of Moffatdale to the lowlands of Berwick."

Of the character and life of its people, Mr. Buchan makes a portrayal both vivid and enduring. He is sparing of anecdote and still more sparing of dialect, but he achieves his end through the affection with which he has studied his neighbors in their relations to each other and to nature—a love of humanity akin to that which animates Bewick's sincere woodcuts and White's simple natural history of his Selborne parish. He takes you a tramp over the moors, on the track of the abandoned drove-road worn by the herds that, ere the advent of railroads, came from the north, in charge of men as rude and picturesque as our Texans. He goes salmon fishing with you in the early May mornings, flushing many a bird by the wayside, and maybe surprising a poacher, clandestinely enjoying the sport forbidden him by law. Mr. Buchan has charity for such lawbreakers. The poacher may be a blackguard, "but he would be a worse man were he not a poacher." "It is something affecting to see the ragged weaver, out of work maybe, up to his knees in the stream, intent upon his fishing; the herd-boy who whips the mountain burn with his home-made rod"—for "they love it and are learned in it above the common."

Mr. Buchan sees all things with the same sweet and healthy imagination, and his book brings up pleasant thoughts of a generous country and a kindly people; of big hills to climb, broad moors to tramp, and swift streams to fish, over; and of stirring days that will not come again—of the sudden rush of the border foray, the dusty herds with their dour escorts, the camp-fires along the road, "the menace of visionary dogs and the confused speech of drovers who have long since ceased from their toil."

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The Myths of the New World. A Treatise on the Symbolism and Mythology of the Red Race of America. By Daniel G. Brinton. Third edition, revised. Philadelphia: David McKay. 1896. 8vo, pp. 361.

To collect into one volume the myths, beliefs, and religious ceremonies of all the aborigines of both Americas—countries of such an enormous extent and diversity—has been frequently attempted, but could never fully succeed on account of the immensity of the task and the fragmentary condition of the material at hand. It is true that special myths are found to be disseminated over large areas and worded in approximatively the same terms. Myths of this kind are: the creation of the land from sand or mud hauled up from the bottom of the primeval ocean; the road to the sky formed by arrows; the red cedar containing the blood of human beings; the coyote-wolf as the creator of the universe, and many others. But the ownership of such myths by no means proves the identity of the mythologies of the nations whose religious life rests upon them. In some nations the chief deity, to which all others appear subordinate, is the sky, when unclouded; in others it is the clouded or stormy sky, torn by thunder and lightning; in others, again, it is the fire or light which stands highest, but most frequently the sun is first in rank, under manifold appellations. In myths the power of light rises to importance only when it is associated with heat, for this is the beneficent power which raises the crops and becomes the nourisher of mankind. In this third edition our author lays but little stress on the myth-making power of light and dawn, contrary to his practice in other publications.

Dr. Brinton was probably the first to apply the term "culture heroes" to certain mythic characters in America; a short list of them is given on page 192, which, he says, could be extended indefinitely. These heroes taught their people the arts of life, religious worship, the secrets of magic; and, by ruling over them, added to their happiness. Brinton thinks that some of them may belong to history, but the descriptions we have of them make this rather doubtful, and we are of opinion that only Hiawatha, of the Iroquois, can be considered in this light even by those who are not euhemerists. These characters are mostly masculine, and we find no culture heroine in America comparable to Demeter of the Greeks.

Where is the seat of the soul in the living body? The medicine-men of all tribes have settled this problem in some way and to their own satisfaction. The Greek term *phrenes* would place it in the midriff, the Hebrew *ruach* in the breath. But in this country most Algonkin tribes had it in the heart, the New England Indians in the brain, the Tonkawēs in the fontanel, and the Costa Ricans in the liver. A plurality of souls is assumed by the majority of Western tribes of the United States, and they were brought to this by philosophizing upon the nature of dreams. The Eskimos even assume the existence of three souls, the last one entering the body when the child is given its name (p. 277).

There was a custom of cleaning, packing, and transferring the bones of the dead when a certain period had elapsed after decease. But this was by no means a *general* custom, as Dr. Brinton assumes, for persons buried in stone cists (Omaha), or in canoes (Columbia River), or trees (Dakota), were certainly left where they were placed first. On the Pacific Coast, cremation was the general mode of disposing of the dead. A motive for preserving the bones was the expectation that the soul would return to the bones (p. 295) and the body be returned to life again. Ancestral worship, which might have been the sequel of this custom, is found in America, but sporadically and not prominently.

Many passages of this work have been left unchanged from the first edition, *e. g.*, what is said about circumcision and about the superstition of the horned snake, which we find among Hurons, Muscogees, and Shawnees. The fact that in the Minitaree language *midi* means *water* and also *moon* cannot be adduced to prove that the moon-deity controlled rain and rain-water, for both words rest upon different radical syllables and are homonyms only. Again, the belief that the human race took its origin in mountains is not infrequent in this part of the world; but from the fact that the Delaware Indians called the Alleghany Mountains "Paemotinck" no argument can be drawn in favor of this opinion, for this name does not mean 'the origin of the Indians.' It simply signifies 'in the distant mountains,' for päm-, pem-, is a prefix pointing to distance, 'far off,' ádn or óden means 'mountain,' and -k is the locative case-suffix, meaning *on*, *in*, *upon*.

Water Supply. (Considered principally from a sanitary standpoint.) By William P. Mason, Professor of Chemistry, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. John Wiley & Sons. 1896.

With the spread of sanitary knowledge and the increasing demands of a concentrated civilization, the conditions surrounding the question of water-supply grow in number and importance as health and comfort press for purity and abundance. Almost every locality has its own problem of varying complexity, as, to go no further, is shown in this immediate region by the difficulties of the Schuylkill, the Passaic, and the Croton. The details differ, but the underlying principles, often perplexing to apply, and perhaps not yet recognized in all their bearings, are gradually being assembled as in a depot. From such a treasury those who have the wisdom may draw the appropriate preventives and correctives. One such thesaurus is before us. Prof. Mason has a well-defined place among chemists, and has been recognized by some American hygienists as an intelligent investigator and teacher of the relations of water to man, but the present work will extend his favorable reputation much further.

This volume is not behind the latest genuine achievements of hygiene along its special line. It recognizes that the malarial poison is potable as well as respirable. It accepts as a working hypothesis the possible evolution of the typhoid bacillus from an innocent bacterium, with the inevitable conclusion that fever and filth are intimately related. It teaches that sunlight does and frost does not destroy that special poison; it emphasizes the necessity of intermittence when soil filtration is depended upon to purify water; it insists that when a watershed has once been selected, its immaculateness must be protected with the utmost rigor of the law. It maintains the virtue of boiled drinking-water, which, as a decoction of roots, saved from the malarial poison the Spanish invaders in the swamps of Florida, and preserves to-day the tea-drinking Chinese among the shallow wells of the California plains against that plasmodium, and will protect all others against water-borne cholera and typhoid causes. The value, nay the necessity, of sedimentation and of filtration on a large scale is shown, and the work makes clear what is quite as important to the individual; the mischief that may inhere in the domestic filter. In fact, no artificial filter is self-cleansing, and no natural filter may be overworked with impunity.

Quite beyond the chemical investigation, nature, and treatment of water for ingestion and for economic purposes is the author's meteorological and climatic range. Incidentally he discredits the popular belief that rain generally succeeds great battles because of gunpowder, and quotes Plutarch as describing the field to have been thus mercifully bathed after days of ancient slaughter; while as against the confessed frauds of the explosive rainmakers of to-day, he cites the authority of Arago that a hundred and thirty years ago guns were ineffectually fired to dissipate storms.

The water supply of the great plains, popularly supposed to be derived from the precipitation on the Rocky Mountains, and to lie under them, only awaiting pumping to render those semi-arid grazing-grounds fertile fields of cereals, Prof. Mason believes to be most limited. Deep river-trenches at the eastern foot of the range cut off the most of this from reaching the open country. He quotes Follett in a Senate Document (52d Congress) to the effect that not more can be hoped for from the underlying sheet than enough to irrigate from two to five acres in every farm [of one hundred and sixty acres?], and that if general irrigation is attempted, the water level must be permanently lowered with general consecutive disaster. Of course this is theoretical, not demonstrated science; that is, science not demonstrated on the spot. Its correctness is of vast importance to the potential thousands who, in the eyes of enthusiasts, are to make the great plains blossom as the rose, but it seems probable that the arable soil will remain that within relatively narrow lines along mountain bases and river bottoms. That the lowering of the subterranean water-supply just referred to may occur, and is a serious matter, is inferrible from the change in that from the chalk basin upon which London depends. There, through the valleys of the Colne, of the Lee, and of the Thames, deep wells and superficial streams are showing that three gallons cannot with impunity be drawn from a given area for every two that fall upon it. Another warning that we do not recall elsewhere is against pressing a driven-well system beyond its true capacity. Natural filtration insures pure water; but if the wells are forced unnaturally, the water table is unduly lowered locally, a rapid flow towards the exhausted region may cause subsoil channels, and the way is then opened for unpurified surface water to enter. Such an accident would be irreparable. Faith in the filtering power of the soil or ignorance as to its limitation is almost incredible. An example, not cited in this volume, was, turning superficially upon the galleries a polluted stream and expecting it, by straining downward through three feet of gravelly earth, to swell the potable water. There was an increased volume, and with it a corresponding morbidity and mortality rate. Possibly the water company was more concerned about the amount than the purity of the supply.

One of the appendices, of which there are several, shows the economy and efficiency of using salt water for watering and washing roadways and streets and for flushing sewers,

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but not for extinguishing fires. There seems no reason why our seaboard cities might not accept such aid to relieve the drain of this mechanical work upon the usually overtaxed domestic supply.

We may fairly place Mason's 'Water Supply' upon an equal shelf with any book of its kind. It appeals to a large circle of readers, from the consumer to the physician and the engineer, and few can examine it without advantage. It is fully illustrated, and has a copious although not particularly clear index, whose numerous headings, however, counteract an occasional indirectness.

A History of Egypt during the XVIIth and XVIIIth Dynasties. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. 12mo, pp. xvi, 353. $2.25.

ABOUT a year ago the first volume appeared in a series projected by Professor Petrie and intended to embrace the history of Egypt from the earliest times down to the close of the Arabic period. The present volume is the second, but it covers only two of the four dynasties which the original prospectus assigned to it. The reason is that it was found impossible to compress into a volume of the requisite size the wealth of material that lay ready to the author's hand. It is strange that we should be so well instructed as to the sequence of events within a period whose terminal limits are so ill-marked and indefinite in terms of the ordinary reckoning. One is surprised that the "annals" of a king's reign can be written when there is uncertainty as to the decade or even the century when the reign itself began.

The importance of the events detailed in the present volume is great, and the personages described rank with the foremost names in the world's history. The seventeenth Egyptian dynasty is obscure and the facts known about it are meagre; but with the rise of the following dynasty there occurred the expulsion of the Hyksos invaders who had held the land in bondage for upward of five centuries. Then followed the reigns of the three Thothmes, during which the power of Egypt was extended over distant Syria. Intermediate were the maritime ventures of their kinswoman, Queen Hatasu or "Hat-shepsut," which brought the various products of the Somali coast to enrich the temples of the gods at Thebes. Before the close of the dynasty came the nearest approach to a monotheistic worship which Egypt ever knew, under Amenophis IV., the "heretic" king, who himself was under the influence of a Semitic or foreign mother, wife, and household. The worship of the sun-disk as Aten (Adoni or Adonis of the Syrians), however, did not long endure, and coincidently with the fall of the dynasty the old worship of Amon-Ra of Thebes reappeared. The story of this development is wrought out by Prof. Petrie in masterly style, and the wonder is that so much detail is possible after so many intervening centuries. Use has also been made of the facts disclosed by the cuneiform tablets found recently at Tell el-Amarna in Egypt, both to throw light upon the internal and external condition of Egypt at the time, and also upon the geography of Palestine and Syria.

Prof. Petrie is an eminently judicious and painstaking writer, as well as a learned and accurate explorer and archæologist. In this series he is giving to English readers the best history of Egypt that we have in the language, and in fact in any tongue. Numerous illustrations accompany the text, and the printing of the names of kings and princes in hieroglyphic type at the head of the various chapters will be welcomed by advanced readers. The amount of detail embodied in the work is immense, and it would be difficult to find many facts of interest in the history which are not mentioned. Indeed, the series promises to be a thesaurus, and yet the volumes are readable, interesting, and at times even fascinating. It is brought down to date, and cannot but prove valuable to a large circle of readers, both special and general.

The Ecclesiastical Architecture of Scotland, from the Earliest Christian Times to the Seventeenth Century. By David Macgibbon and Thomas Ross. Volume II. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1896. Pages xx, 564.

THE first volume of this excellent book has been already reviewed in these columns. The present deals with the earlier complete Gothic architecture of Scotland, or that which corresponds to the so-called "Early English," and also with the later architecture which was founded upon English "Decorated" and English "Perpendicular." The epoch represented covers the thirteenth century and the fourteenth century, during which the savage wars with England prevented architectural development, and that part of the fifteenth century during which work began again, much in the spirit of an earlier time. The names given in this book to the styles considered are the sufficiently accurate ones, "First Pointed" and "Middle Pointed."

It is, of course, true that Gothic architecture did not originate in Scotland, nor even in England; and if it is true that the English Gothic is not always perfectly consistent as a style, but shows in many cases a reminiscence of the earlier or pre-Gothic period which it cannot shake off, it is still more evidently true that in Scotland the style never reached a very magnificent development. The buildings were small, the means at the command of the builders were not great. In spite of the intimate political intercourse between France and Scotland during the Middle Ages, the presence of French design seems doubtful, or, at least, rare; and, in short, it is not to Scotland that one would go to study Gothic architecture of the highest type. But as a thorough study of an outlying school of buildings which are full of spirit and sincerity, and which, by great good fortune, have not been ruined by destructive restoration, this volume is to be confidently recommended. It is with the greatest pleasure that one finds in the critical remarks scattered through the book, in the preface and the introductory essays, at pages 1 and 331, a perfectly just and equable tone of historical treatment, as well as a profound familiarity with the subject in hand. It is as evident here as in the earlier volume that our authors know the architecture of the Continent and of England admirably well, and feel with entire rightness the connection between the minor schools of Scotland and those greater and wider developments of the styles.

It appears from the general title that at least one volume is still to be looked for. The ecclesiastical architecture of the Scottish styles contemporaneous with the Tudor, the Elizabethan, and the Jacobean of England will be extremely interesting. We shall hope to learn from that volume how far the Continental architecture of the Renaissance had weight in Scotland; in England such influence is hardly noticeable except in tombs and doorways and similar large details. As to the general design of buildings, the Gothic influence is never absent until, after the civil wars, the sudden classical revival under Inigo Jones and Wren appears, and that ought not to be called Renaissance at all.

Bird-Land Echoes. By Charles Conrad Abbott, M.D. With illustrations by William Everett Cram. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 270.

IN telling one of his stories Dr. Abbott remarks (p. 158): "I needed tact, which I am not blessed with, and was lucky to-day in not blundering." Lack of tact may be one reason why so clever and prolific a writer as Dr. Abbott has never been fortunate enough to secure any very general recognition, either in archæology or in ornithology. He certainly blunders throughout the present volume in bumptiousness toward ornithologists, whom he affects to despise, as if the attempts of these "bird-men," as he calls them by way of a sneer, to be technically accurate, were a reflection upon his own methods. Perhaps the comparison is odious to him; but it is not tactful to apologize for himself by slurring others who prefer to be more scientific than he cares to be. Pride of amateurishness can never hope to justify itself by flinging out at professional work; the trick is easy enough, but never successful. We could name a dozen agreeable writers on birds, of considerable attainments in ornithology (yet content to leave the technicalities in abler hands), whose influence and usefulness are directly proportionate to their tactfulness in the single particular we find so offensive in Dr. Abbott's case. We have no quarrel with the amateurs; we leave them to their own devices, wishing them the joy and peace we have no desire to disturb. Dr. Abbott rides his hobby with ease, invests his birds with imaginary attributes from the depths of his own consciousness, and dreams about them pleasantly in print; he turns phrases effectively, and makes good reading-matter for those who find such reading-matter good. But many of his statements of fact are widely at variance with the experiences of other observers. There is an unreality in Dr. Abbott's writing, even where his verisimilitude is obvious, that almost raises a question of veraciousness.

Some of Mr. Cram's slight sketches are much better than others; they have merit, as a whole, and the best ones lead us to believe he could do better still with a little practice in art technique. We are also sure that the author could write a better book than this one if he would take our friendly criticism to heart.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Library of the World's Best Literature. Vols. 1 and 2. New York: The International Society.
Boutell, L. H. The Life of Roger Sherman. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Cyr, Ellen M. The Children's Third Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60c.
Dix, Rev. Morgan. Harriet Starr Cannon, First Mother Superior of the Sisterhood of St. Mary. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
George, A. J. Tennyson's Princess. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.
Hoy, Dr. A. H. Eating and Drinking. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Littell's Living Age. Oct.-Dec., 1896. Boston: *Living Age* Co.
Nestle, Eberhard. Novi Testamenti Graeci Supplementum Editionibus De-Gebhardt-Tischendorfianis. Leipzig: Tauchnitz; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Poems and Ballads. By "Q." London: Methuen & Co.
Read, Opie. An Arkansas Planter. Rand, McNally & Co.
Shannon, C. H., and White, J. W. G. The Pageant. 1897. London: Henry & Co.
Tinseau, Léon de. La Lampe de Psyché. W. R. Jenkins. 35c.
Wheeler, E. P. The Duty of the United States to American Citizens in Turkey. F. H. Revell Co.
White, W. A. The Real Issue. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.

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